The Nation.

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The Week.

Mr. James Creelman at last gives us Addicks's *apologia* in the *World*. Stripping off the accessories of Italian art and domestic felicity in which the narrative is embowered, the apology comes down to this: that Mr. Addicks had rehabilitated the Republican party in Delaware. Towards this disinterested work he had offered a slight contribution of $10,000 a year, and the total cost of his leadership in Delaware, he is "quite certain," has been, not millions, but a trifling $250,000. The fact of the matter was, said Mr. Addicks, that all the trouble had arisen because he (Addicks) had been a Theodore Roosevelt out of due time. As he said this blushingly, he presented to Mr. Creelman's untroubled gaze "a pale sapphire ring, an inheritance from an O'Sullivan ancestor in Ireland, who caused the family motto, 'Modestia Victrix,' to be engraved under the rampant lions, the wild boar, and the deer of the family crest." Mr. Creelman avoided the subject of "victorious modesty" with Jesuitical astuteness, while Mr. Addicks, as "a gentle breeze scattered the yellowed leaves of trees among the dying flowers and the drooping bushes," explained how he had "simply got around" a Massachusetts law regulating the capitalization of gas companies. In this connection he felt that attempts to control great corporations by the State were ill-advised. Trusts were best "let alone," and matters would soon "adjust themselves along natural laws." Finally, the forerunner of Theodore Roosevelt felt that in the matter of the Byrne appointment the actual Theodore Roosevelt has acted "gracefully and properly." Since Mr. Addicks had already explained that he was not "an ignorant, vicious vulgarian," his opinion on a matter of personal propriety should be given due weight with the President.

If Platt has rendered any public service entitling him to the honor of reelection to the United States Senate, the fact should be known. Will none of his friends come forward to tell us what it is? We and the vast majority of his fellow-citizens are lamentably ignorant of our indebtedness to him, if any exists. What has he done for the State? Wherein has the city benefited by him? As Senator, what act of his deserves praise or recognition? Platt's offences we know. The objections to him are mountain-high. But what can be said in his favor? We ask his admirers, his defenders, even his apologists, to tell us. Is it not an extraordinary condition of things when the State of New York is called upon to elect a Senator for whom not a word can be said; who is to be elected amid universal silence and hanging of heads; for whom even his private adulators will not speak up in public?

This municipality was flung by him into the arms of Tammany in 1897. When reform triumphed last year, the most that Platt did was to keep out of the way. If he aided in the election of the anti-Tammany ticket at all, it was only because Mr. Jerome wakened vast enthusiasm by his fearless linking of Platt and Croker as the two bosses who were the veritable enemies of the city. Since then he has done nothing to show that he was not justly placed in that category. State legislation has been of a highly important character during Platt's term as Senator. He has touched it only to make trouble. There have been sweeping changes in taxation; laws passed vitally affecting the civil service, the dependent classes, the forests, the canals. With which one of these measures has Platt's name been connected, except malignly? It is not that he has kept his hands off State affairs, He has professed to direct them. But what has he done? He has urged a bill to take away the police power from New York city—a bill so bad that a Republican Governor was forced to break with him on that issue. He has affronted and assailed the judiciary in a manner so flagrant that the voters rose up to give him a stinging rebuke. If Mr. Platt has done anything else for this State, we should like to be told what it is. As for his service at Washington, who can point to a speech made by Platt? Who to an important bill introduced by him? Being in Washington simply as an office-broker and patronage-hunter, he made no pretence of being anything else. A vacant chair, or a lay figure to vote when a button was pressed, would have been as good a Senator as he.

Without any wish to prejudge Mr. Mitchell's case, we cannot resist a certain pleasure at seeing him so neatly cornered by Mr. MacVeagh. For some months John Mitchell has been cornering both his friends and opponents. He actually snubbed the President for his offer of a commission, without leaving him any grounds for a retort, and later he calmly annexed the President to the strikers' side without possibility of protest. Not that Mitchell need wholly be ashamed of the chase he led Mr. Wayne MacVeagh on Monday. On the contrary, the angel of peace himself could not have been more inflexibly opposed to all acts of violence, by whomsoever committed, than was the man who testified that his union had profited by what he described as "intolerable" conditions of disorder. But his attitude was clearly that of resignation, not of indignation, and in an unguarded moment he admitted that the dynamite outrages were presumptively the work of the strikers. For this means of terrorism he was careless enough to assert the advantage that it had been bloodless; an admission which proved that such intimidation had been deliberately planned.

The time is ripe for society to take action to protect itself against all boycotts. This evil has reached such proportions that freedom of action, and even freedom of thought, have been annihilated in some localities, so that men go to their daily work trembling in fear of an unseen monster, the boycott. In some places two or more boycotts are raging at once. The boycotters boycott each other, and then threaten all men, women, and children who refuse to obey the orders which they discharge against each other. This was what Mr. Samuel Gompers referred to in his opening speech at New Orleans last Thursday, when he said that unless there was a speedy change in the ways of organized labor, the unions would be fighting each other behind barricades in the streets. Yet Mr. Gompers goes in for boycotts when he has the making of them himself. No man who believes in the boycott at all is fit to put a limit on the use of that anti-social, uncivilized, un-American weapon.

The Board of Supervisors of Warren County, N. Y., has asked the boards of the neighboring counties of Saratoga and Washington to join in an appeal to the Legislature for an appropriation to pay the bills caused by the riotous strike on the Hudson Valley Railway. It was this which made necessary the keeping on duty of the various companies composing the Second Regiment, N. G. N. Y., for a number of weeks. It is to be hoped that this appeal will fail. If the daily reports of the incidents of the strike were correct, the rioters received no little encouragement from the attitude of the people in the towns and villages connected by the railway's lines, particularly in Glens Falls, Sandy Hill, Fort Edward, Saratoga, Mechanicsville, and Waterford. Indeed, the number of employees on strike was relatively so small that it would have been impossible, without the assistance of a large number of unruly local sympathizers, to organize riots so serious as to make necessary a call for State troops. In this view of the case, the people of the neigh-

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borhood affected by the disturbances were largely to blame for the outbreaks, and it would be a wholesome lesson for them to be compelled to pay the fiddler after their dance.

It is now plain that neither the Governor nor the State military authorities can take any action with a view to punishing the Schenectady labor leaders who are engaged in an attempt to injure the National Guard of this State. It is not treason to deprive a man of his employment because he has chosen to become a citizen soldier; it is probably not even a conspiracy against the State, as that term is at present defined. The injured militiaman might properly bring suit individually against the leaders who have arbitrarily deprived him of his employment because he chose to serve the State. As far as the State authorities are concerned, however, they are powerless to act in the matter, and their helplessness will undoubtedly lead to efforts to secure legislation on the subject as soon as the Legislature meets, particularly as this is not the first case of union hostility to the militia. Were the efforts of the labor unions directed towards discouraging enlistments in an over-large and menacing standing army, there might be some excuse for the attitude taken in Schenectady and elsewhere. But there is nothing whatsoever about the character or organization of the National Guard which can be construed as menacing the liberties of the people, or as threatening the right of laboring men to work or to strike whenever they see fit. When troops have been called out on strike duty, there has never been an instance, to our knowledge, where the soldiers have taken sides with one or the other party to the dispute. They have in every case confined themselves to the duty of policing the districts into which they were sent, and of protecting private property from the attacks of the lawless. In remarkably few cases have the troops fired upon the crowd in their efforts to uphold the law. Strikes often collapse on their mere appearance; but no large strike of moderately skilled labor, such as motormen, freight-handlers, switchmen, etc., is likely to succeed unless public opinion is emphatically behind the strikers.

Mr. Griggs's statement, in last week's preliminary hearing of the suit of the United States against the Northern Securities Company, opened what is perhaps the most important line of defence. He alleged that during several years, before even the anti-Trust act of 1890, many important American railway companies "had acquired all or a majority of the shares of the stock of competing railway companies, or had acquired by purchase or lease the control of parallel and competing lines of railway, and that this state of things was a matter of common knowledge, and was reported to the Interstate Commerce Commission, and by it to Congress." Mr. Griggs further maintained that Congress never intended, by the act of 1890, to touch this class of operations. Whatever may be said as to this latter inference, Mr. Griggs's statement of facts is correct, and was, of course, amply sustained by the copies of annual railway reports submitted in evidence. This phase of the matter has, in fact, been from the first the most significant. Even people who were more or less in sympathy with the Government's purposes in the Northern Securities suit, have asked, with some concern, how a decision against the company would affect such well-known railway aggregations as the New Haven or Pennsylvania Companies. It is natural that the defence should push to the front this argument in its case.

The argument was anticipated, however, by Attorney-General Knox in his brief of March 10. The Government's position, as then outlined by Mr. Knox, forestalled with a good deal of skill contentions that the pending suit was really a suit against all existing railway systems, formed through purchase and consolidation of outlying properties. The Attorney-General maintained:

> "The defendant, the Northern Securities Company, was not organized in good faith to purchase and pay for the stocks of the Great Northern and the Northern Pacific Railway Companies. It was organized solely to incorporate the pooling of the stocks of said companies, and to carry into effect the unlawful combination or conspiracy aforesaid. The Northern Securities Company is a mere depository, custodian, holder, and trustee of the stocks of the Great Northern and the Northern Pacific Railway Companies, and its shares of stock are but beneficial certificates issued against said railroad stocks to designate the interest of the holders in the pool. The Northern Securities Company does not have, and never had, any capital sufficient to warrant such a stupendous operation."

The ingenuity of this plea has been much commented on by lawyers. It was met, in the defendant's answer of last May, mainly by allegation that "this defendant is not a railway company, and has no power to operate or manage railways or make or control rates of transportation," and, moreover,

> "that every share of stock issued by this defendant has been issued to the persons or corporations receiving the same, for full value paid for it, either in cash or its equivalent."

The interesting part of the legal battle in this case will be the effort of the defence to assimilate the Northern Securities combination to the smaller railway purchases and consolidations which preceded it, and of the prosecution to distinguish it from them.

Gen. Chaffee has manfully assumed the unpleasant responsibility for everything done in the Philippines during his tour of duty as commander-in-chief. It must be noted, however, that he limits this responsibility and his approval to the written orders issued by his subordinates. "Hell-Roaring Jake's" instructions to kill and burn in Samar were, it will be remembered, verbal orders. Gen. Bell's severe course in Batangas Gen. Chaffee heartily approves, because it was "for peace and not for war" that he was contending. Gen. Chaffee also furnishes us with a new description of reconcentration, "separation with their effects from those not disposed to peace," which should be added to the long list of palliative terms invented by conquerors the world over to minimize their cruelties. But Gen. Chaffee is in danger of being considered over-optimistic when he thinks that the end of the insurrection is surely accomplished. It is easy enough to call small bands "ladrones" and outlaws, but when the Civil Commission finds these robbers increasing in such numbers as to compel it to call on the military for aid, as it did last week, the disguise grows thin. Like Gen. Young, Gen. Chaffee has great praise for the soldiers; but he qualifies his belief in their exerting a good influence on the natives with the phrase, "unless the alleged demoralizing influence broadens so as to make the presence of the white race as a race demoralizing to the native races." Plenty of proof of this is to be found both in and out of army circles in our four years' occupation of the unhappy Philippines.

A telegram from Washington says that the report of the Philippine Commission recommends the establishment of the gold standard in the islands at the earliest possible moment. The decline in the price of silver has caused a loss to the Government of about $1,000,000 during the past six months; that is, since the adjournment of Congress. The public revenue is collected in silver, while purchases are made for the most part on the gold basis. Payments of salaries, if made with silver, cause loss to the recipients, who are mostly Americans. President Taft himself is a sufferer in this way. The condition is like that which compelled Japan, in 1895, to adopt the gold standard. At that time the gold dollar was worth, as bullion, exactly two silver dollars. Now it is worth two and a half, and yet the State of Colorado went Republican in the last election. The latter fact should embolden the United States Senate to adopt the Conant bill for currency reform in the Philippines before the price of silver falls materially lower. According to all reports received from the islands, their financial condition is desperate. The Government is obliged to borrow large sums of money to meet its necessary expenses and to avert starvation among the inhabitants. In short, the after effects of the

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war have come in the usual form of pestilence and famine. A change in the currency system will not cure these afflictions, but it will improve the country's credit, and enable the Government better to cope with the evils confronting it.

Careful readers have formed the habit of suspending judgment on all matters relating to the Danish West Indies until the statements of evidently biassed cablegrams have been either verified or, as has usually been the case, contradicted by the Danish papers. Many of our enthusiastic editorial writers, however, have not learned wisdom from past errors, and the result is a fresh outburst over the report that the opponents of the sale have been unable to make good their promise to support a steamship line between Denmark and St. Thomas. But it is now stated on no less authority than the *Berlingske Tidende* of Copenhagen, the Government organ, that the full capital of the new company has been guaranteed, and that all that is lacking is the subscription of additional shares for the extension of communications with Central and South America. The article contains a list of the directors of the company, which includes some of the strongest names in the Danish commercial and aristocratic world. Danish capitalists are not in the habit of backing out of an engagement once made, and it was a slur on the national character to suppose that they had done so in this case. Hardly less unfair is the statement, often made since the rejection of the treaty by the Danish upper house, that this action was taken solely in order to embarrass the present Liberal Ministry. It may be that political motives played a part with many, but in the main the hostility to the sale was along national, not party, lines. Georg Brandes, the leader of the Danish radicals in literature, was among the first to give voice to the national conscience, and it is childish to suppose that he would act in the interests of Danish conservatism.

It is not so long ago since Congressman Grosvenor solemnly warned the nation, under penalty of dire financial distress, not to elect a Democratic Congress. Now the prophecy has been completely fulfilled, except in the matter of the Democratic Congress. Depreciation in securities and the prospect of falling prices for commodities have come as promptly to time as if the nation were chilled and prosperity checked by the prospect of Democratic ascendency. The awkwardness of continued semi-panic conditions following upon a rousing vote for the Republican party and prosperity is sufficiently obvious. It is not too much, however, for the Republican oracles. What would have been very like an expression of Divine wrath for a vote against the "god of things as they are," becomes now a beneficent chastening for the common good. That is, a Democratic bear market is a high political offence, but a Republican bear market is a casual incident of speculation, for which the party assumes no responsibility. The speculator who burns his fingers under Democratic depression has the sweet savor of a martyr; the speculator who liquidates a losing account during Republican depression is a foolish fellow who suffers the natural penalty of his own recklessness. All of these things go to show that it makes all the difference in the world whose panic it is. But such reflections yield imperfect consolation to those who believed Congressman Grosvenor and voted the Republican ticket to hold the market up.

The fact that October's import of foreign merchandise, as shown by Saturday's official figures, was the largest ever reported for that month, is not in itself especially surprising. The country is wealthier than it ever was before, and better able to buy what it chooses from foreign producers and manufacturers. Comparison of the year to date with previous years, however, makes the showing a little startling. In the ten completed months of 1902, this country has imported $61,700,000 more foreign merchandise than in 1901, $94,600,000 more than in 1900, $131,500,000 more than in 1899, and $261,900,000 more than in 1898. As compared with the last-named year, the rate of increase in our imports has been very nearly 50 per cent. Whatever the immediate cause or meaning of the movement, it disposes of several theories entertained during this trade revival by philosophers who had established to their own satisfaction a wholly new order of things in American finance. Judged in the light of these more recent developments, we do not seem to have learned how to dispense with foreign purchases, while we do appear to have discovered how to dispose of a "foreign credit balance."

"Everything ends in songs," said that apparently frivolous but really wise Frenchman, Beaumarchais. If he were living in New York to-day he would have probably said, "Everything ends in dinners." It was in recognition of this principle that Senator Depew and Mr. James H. Hyde assembled the notable company that on Saturday bade farewell and godspeed to Ambassador Cambon. It will not be invidious to say that so representative a gathering could hardly have been made in honor of any other member of the diplomatic corps at Washington. M. Cambon had exceptional responsibilities, of which he acquitted himself with rare skill. During the late war he represented with rare dignity the interests of Spain. No doubt, the perfectly correct attitude of the French Government at that time was in large part due to his representations. There was every reason, then, for making such public and hearty recognition of his eminent services to this country as can most fully be offered in the post-prandial hour. That hour has its perils, as was amusingly shown in the case of Secretary Root, who spoke for the Administration. Something of the "Visigothic" warmth of Mr. Root's political prophecies has been eliminated from the press reports, but enough remains to show that he charged M. Cambon to create "a great Latin republican empire on the continent of Europe, in which the Seine and the Guadalquivir will flow in unison and harmony." In other words, he authorized M. Cambon to overthrow the sovereign to whom he is accredited—diplomatic credentials of an unusual order. At this point M. Cambon's English, which had previously served him admirably, failed him utterly, and he gave no signs of understanding Secretary Root's rearrangement of the map of Europe. In the privacy of his first interview with Premier Combes, he will possibly find occasion to say that the duty of "telling it to the marines," which in France falls to the Naval Minister (the original inventor of the "champagne speech"), is in America performed by the Minister of War.

The German Reichstag has by a large majority given the Government authority to proclaim retaliatory tariff schedules against all nations which discriminate against German products. By a curious coincidence, this vote was taken only a day or so after President Roosevelt's declaration before the Chamber of Commerce that "the voice of the just man armed is potent." Naturally every nation must be considered just by its own legislature, and the Reichstag made a prompt and justifiable application of the President's dictum in taking up arms. Probably the German Foreign Office will assure our State Department that the new tariff weapon is not for use, but merely for potency. It is hard to see how we could object to such an explanation. For years it has been our boast that we held up cheap foreign products and inferior European labor. That "just man armed," Brother Jonathan, who has been used to mulcting Wagoner Hans at the pistol point, will have no real grievance if some day Hans draws not his purse, but his snickersnee. It was, in fact, precisely President Roosevelt's argument that "arms" were necessary which the Agrarians used in the protracted debate of Thursday. How fallacious is that reasoning which sees in fumbling with deadly weapons a means of keeping political and industrial peace, no one who has observed societies in which every gentleman "wears a gun" will need to be told.

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ROOSEVELT & ADDICKS.

Who would have believed it, if told a week ago that Addicks would be seen today trampling upon the prostrate form of Delaware, and boasting that he had the support of Theodore Roosevelt in his efforts to complete that State's dishonor? Yet that is precisely the kind of swaggering which the gas-man is doing. All his subsidized country newspapers have had the tip from him, and are gleefully saying that Addicks is now the sole dispenser of Federal patronage in Delaware. He still needs a few votes in the Senate, but, with the prestige of President Roosevelt's endorsement, he hopes now to win them. It is a shameful and humiliating spectacle.

Mr. Roosevelt has appointed an Addicks man United States District Attorney. To do so, he had to pass over the name of the temporary incumbent of the office, Mr. J. P. Nields, who was endorsed for the position by nearly every lawyer in the State, irrespective of party, by both of the Federal judges, and by the entire judiciary of Delaware. The Addicks tool named by the President, Mr. W. M. Byrne, is a man whose appointment is conspicuously unfit, quite apart from his political affiliations. During his first term in the office—which he resigned at the word of command from Addicks—he was notorious for inefficiency. He had to undergo the humiliation of being rebuked in open court by Judge Bradford, for having neglected his duty. It would be a shame to appoint such a man even if his political sponsor were a saint. To take him at the behest of Addicks is an unspeakable degradation. His confirmation ought to be fought and defeated. We sincerely hope that the Judiciary Committee of the Senate, with Senator Hoar at its head, will show a more scrupulous regard for the honor and purity of Federal justice than the President of the United States has displayed in this case.

But even if Byrne were a Story and Webster rolled into one, his appointment ought not to be thought of so long as it could be of the slightest aid to Addicks in the commission of his political high crimes and misdemeanors. The Postmaster-General explains the President's position, just as we know from other sources that Mr. Roosevelt himself puts it. "Why," he says, "the election returns show that Addicks has 12,000 votes behind him, while his Republican opponents have but 8,000. How, then, can I deny him recognition?" When, however, did the moral law begin to depend upon a sum in arithmetic? Can we not speak our mind about the outrages of a notorious political criminal until we have worked out a problem in proportion? We understand, of course, that the President attempts to throw the whole thing back upon the electorate of Delaware. He cannot, he maintains, interfere in a factional quarrel within the party. He is forced to make a rule that he will deal with any leader whom the majority of the party voters send to him, and therefore he will recognize Addicks just as he has recognized Platt and Quay.

Now, saying nothing, for the moment, of the expediency or morality of a "rule" which compels an honest President to embrace brigands when they come to him with a party label on their backs, we have to point out that even the President's rule does not excuse him for striking hands with Addicks. That colossal corruptor of the suffrage is not yet Senator. He is not, like Quay, a successful pirate, in charge of the captured ship; he is still fighting, and the beleaguered crew is still hoping to beat him off. But Mr. Roosevelt, observing that the piratical assailants outnumber the crew in danger of massacre by 12 to 8, decides to aid the buccaneer! A party President may be compelled by some strange rule to aid a man who has actually broken his way into the Senate, like Platt, but how can he be bound to go to the assistance of a man who has not yet completed his burglary? What Addicks says to Mr. Roosevelt is, in effect: "See, I have sandbagged the policeman on the beat, I have gagged the night-watchman, I have got my jimmy, my drills, and my dynamite all ready, and if you will only help me up to that window I can break in and make a good haul." And Theodore Roosevelt offers his broad back to help the burglar up!

We are informed that the President is impatient that "something be done" in Delaware. He tells the anti-Addicks Republicans that their policy is one of pure "negation." They deadlock the Legislature and prevent Addicks from being elected, but they are able to elect no one themselves. He thinks that an intolerable kind of inefficiency. The same might be said, however, of a woman struggling to prevent her honor from being violated. That, too, is a policy of "negation." All she can do is to fight to the limit of her physical strength; and the fact that she is weak is not usually adduced by a bystander as a reason for going to the aid of the ravisher who is strong.

The loathing which the honest people, not only of Delaware, but of the whole country, have come to have for Addicks, in both his private and his public character, cannot be unknown to President Roosevelt. The facts are beyond dispute. A political highwayman is trying to rob a sovereign State, and now boasts that he is getting aid and comfort from the Chief Executive. The situation is one that calls for strong words—and we do not know where to find stronger ones than in the writings of Theodore Roosevelt. He is the author, out of office, of the following sentiments, and he cannot blame us if we hold him to them in office:

> "There must be no compromise with official corruption."
>
> "We cannot trust those base beings who treat politics only as a game out of which to wring a soiled livelihood."
>
> "The real and dangerous foe is the corrupt politician."
>
> "No man who is corrupt, *no man who condones corruption in others*, can possibly do his duty by the community."

Is Mr. Roosevelt going to eat all these and the other burning words of his in which he has expressed his hatred of the men of whom Addicks is the perfect type?

It would be interesting to know how the President squares his action in the case of Internal Revenue Collector Bingham of Alabama with his announced rule as applied to the situation in Delaware. He removed Collector Bingham for the very good reason that this Federal office-holder was engaging in a corrupt and vicious scheme of party politics—namely, the denial of the just political rights of negroes qualified to vote under the laws of the State. Did the President pause to inquire whether the Collector and his associates represented the dominant faction among the Alabama Republicans? What is good for Delaware surely ought to be good for Alabama; and yet there is nothing to show that Mr. Roosevelt got out his tape measure or his scales before he chopped off the official head of the offending Bingham. The offence of the now reappointed Byrne in Delaware was fully as flagrant as Bingham's. Under orders from Addicks, Byrne resigned his office to run for Congress; the sole and avowed object being to defeat Representative Ball, an anti-Addicks Republican. This was surely a blow to the party (for it sent a Democrat to Congress) as well as an offence against political morality. Yet Byrne is rewarded, while Bingham was punished. Does the President have to take observations of latitude and longitude as well as consider weights and measures, in applying his rule? As a political moralist he had himself laid down the real rule for treating the demand of Addicks for recognition. What the public man must do, said Mr. Roosevelt, who would "avoid wreckage," is never to assume "the attitude of deifying mere efficiency, mere success, *without regard to the moral qualities* lying behind it." If he had applied that to Addicks, the gas-man would now be gnashing his teeth instead of chuckling over Presidential support.

ENEMIES OF SOCIETY.

That labor leaders should grow drunk with power, like other men, is not surprising. The surprising thing would be if the intoxicating draughts which have recently been held to their lips had no effect in heightening their arrogance and making their demands more extravagant. They have been recognized

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and flattered by our Chief of State. They have been treated almost as if they were a coördinate branch of the national Government. No wonder, then, that they have set up as, at least, an *imperium in imperio*, with separate laws of their own, often conflicting with the law of the land; with an allegiance to the labor union ranking above that to the State; and with an accelerating recklessness and folly displayed in turning the hand of "labor" against the hand of every independent citizen and against the best interests of society as a whole.

We are not astonished at the way in which organized labor has been showing its teeth of late, but we are instructed by it, and so ought all Americans to be. If any man had doubts about the inherent tendency of unchecked unionism to run into tyranny and a new slavery, as respects its victims, and into a sharp challenge of the fundamental principles of our government, the events of the past few days should have disabused him. We have seen President Eliot denounced as a Judas Iscariot and Benedict Arnold combined for daring to say that he detected a heroic strain in the workingman who refused to submit to union despotism. This honored bearer of a distinguished American name, this leader of those who lead in the intellectual world, has been covered with foul abuse by labor oracles who know as little of our country's traditions as they apparently do of its language. And now close upon the heels of these verbal ferocities comes the most extreme and high-handed and cruel-minded boycott ever attempted in the United States. Scarcely had President Mitchell denied that the boycott had a place in the programme of organized labor, when he and the other apologists for unionism had the lie given them by the Schenectady boycott.

This is laid out on paper with the thoroughness of a military campaign, and with the minute specifications of a mediæval interdict by the Pope. Every street car in and about the city is to be picketed, and if a union man is caught riding upon the unclean thing (unclean because operated by non-union motormen and conductors), he is instantly to be deprived of his union card—that passport of citizenship—and to be expelled as a traitor. Any business man who patronizes the cars is to be boycotted. Inasmuch as the Schenectady Railway Company has some connection with electric-light and gas companies, householders are to be forbidden, under penalty of the union's displeasure—that is, its boycott—to light their residences except with candles or kerosene. That is to say, a would-be labor monopoly is willing, in the use of unlawful weapons, to play into the hands of that other monopoly which it has spent its breath in denouncing—the Standard Oil Company!

But it is not necessary to give further details of this boycott *in excelsis*. That it can succeed, we do not for a moment believe. Common sense has not yet fled from this country. The spirit of personal liberty is not dead. And until both reason and a self-respecting independence cease to exist among us, no such absurd and intolerable system as the labor boycott can live here. The Schenectady proposals are too insensate to be admitted even in a labor-ridden community. They must be rejected unless the city wishes to turn over its government absolutely to walking-delegates. But the incident is valuable as displaying the unscrupulous tendency which all the while lurks in a unionism ambitious of boundless domination. As some diseases are best studied in their most virulent forms, so can we easiest see the inherent nature of trades-unionism exhibited in its moments of extravagant terrorism. We perceive then its inner drift; how it would make every workingman whom it cannot coerce a pariah, and every citizen whom it cannot frighten a ruined man. The Schenectady boycott aims simply at compelling certain men to unionize themselves. In order to force that result, the existing labor unions are ready to wreck the city's business and make the life of its inhabitants one long misery and terror. It is when unionism thus brings forth its perfect work that we see how its leaders and dupes really make themselves enemies of society.

We are evidently approaching another of our periodic crises, in this business of labor organization and the boycott. John Stuart Mill said that he had learned to have great trust in "the capability of the American people to see the practical leanings" of a public question, and to do it "truly and rapidly when the critical moment comes." Surely the critical moment has come when the boycott rears its head and shows its fangs. It is time for all lovers of our inherited liberty to bestir themselves; to defy the insolent commands of a power not known in either law or morals; to call for a revival of American patriotism which shall display itself in resisting these upstart tyrants, and which shall insist upon riding, and working, and buying, and selling without let or hindrance from District Leader This or Local President That. The excess of arrogance in these ridiculous magnates of the lodge must be met fully and firmly; it must be laughed at as scorned; put down with a hard hand in its lawless manifestation; so that American society shall not appear the weak and craven thing the labor leaders imagine it, but capable of crushing these internal enemies.

ASPECTS OF LOCAL OPTION.

The joint temperance committee of the Vermont House and Senate have recommended a high-license bill, giving it the preference over a bill embodying the chief features of the Gothenburg plan of State dispensaries. The highly significant feature of the debate in committee was that every member took it for granted that prohibition is a failure in Vermont, and assumed that the problem before the present Legislature was the proper regulation of the sale of liquor. This action, if followed up by the passing of a local-option law, will deal a shrewd blow to the surviving advocates of statutory prohibition. The reasons for the sudden change of opinion in Vermont are not far to seek. There were found in the last election two candidates courageous enough to strike at the traditional system. When once a voice was found to declare that the State was ever sinking into deeper hypocrisy, the response of the people was unequivocal. Everybody knew that practically all the drug stores in the country towns were unrestricted dispensaries of villainous liquor, that the morphia and other drug habits were alarmingly on the increase, that barrooms which paid no tax except an occasional fine were everywhere to be found; finally, that, in the absence of less destructive drinks, many farmers were making themselves sodden with hard cider, and quarrymen poisoning themselves with mixtures of crude alcohol and sirops. It was notorious, in fine, that, as a temperance measure, the prohibition law was a failure and a distinctly demoralizing force in the body politic.

Having tried and found wanting the theory that a State can by law prevent its citizens from drinking alcoholic liquors, Vermont will probably fall back upon the rival doctrine that each community may regulate the sale of liquor according to its own desires and needs. The peculiar form of local-option law that will be submitted to popular vote is not yet settled, but it seems likely that the law will provide for a "yes or no" vote on the question of license at stated and rather long intervals. Theoretically, such a system makes for stability and the permanent division of communities as license or no license. Practically, the experience of the yearly referendum in Massachusetts and Connecticut has shown the advantage of keeping the liquor question always open. The subject of God, said an irreverent editor of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, has no timeliness in Paris. The effect of the sale of liquor upon the general morals and prosperity is never without interest in a Massachusetts village.

The Massachusetts law is of the utmost simplicity. It sets a high minimum, $1,000, and no maximum for all licenses. It limits the number of licenses to 1 to 1,000 of population (in Boston 1 to 500). It requires the question of license to be voted upon annually, but gives the local authorities (aldermen or selectmen) discretionary power to grant or withhold licenses from all

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applicants. Furthermore, it regulates strictly the hours and conditions of sale, prohibits sale to minors, habitual drunkards, and paupers, and generally holds the saloonkeeper to the strictest accountability. The advantages of this system, as set forth by Mr. Frank Foxcroft in the October *Atlantic*, are patent. The annual referendum forces every community to have a mind of its own upon this important matter. "The recurring anti-license campaigns, unselfish, democratic, and educational, are of great value to the communities concerned, even aside from the main question at issue." The feature of the law which makes a "yes" vote merely permissive is also valuable, since it permits the local authorities to distinguish between a "snap" vote or a transient revulsion of feeling and a popular mandate. Two years ago licenses were refused in five towns which had voted "wet," and in other cases the fee has been set impossibly high.

Of course, the essence of the law is that, while leaving no community free to cast off the restrictions which universal experience has proved to be reasonable, it gives every community liberty to deal with its own needs according to its own preference. Twenty years' experience of the law has shown that the towns and cities tend to fall into permanent classes along license lines, and that the annual referendum is not a source of instability. Last year, for example, out of 353 towns and cities, only 37 changed their position, and these divided so evenly into license and no-license communities that the relative figures for the State were changed only by one.

Local option hardly needs elaborate defence to-day (though our own State still refuses the privilege to cities), but the immediate effect of the change to no-license in Massachusetts towns is extremely interesting. Arrests for drunkenness diminished by three-quarters in a number of towns which voted "dry," and the charges per capita for poor relief by one-half to two-thirds. In general, the strength of the Massachusetts plan is that, unlike prohibitive laws, it does not confuse the wholly different issues of saloon regulation and personal abstinence, and does not impose upon communities laws which public opinion will not suffer to be enforced; while, unlike restricted local option, it trusts every community to handle its own saloon problem. "The total result is," says Mr. Foxcroft, with whom all who know the facts will agree, "an average of effective and impartial law enforcement far above anything that could be looked for under statutory or Constitutional prohibition."

Zealots for compulsory abstinence will perhaps join the merely cynical in saying that the no-license towns maintain their virtuous stand only by reason of the proximity of isles of refuge for the thirsty and determined. In other words, local prohibition in Massachusetts depends upon the prevalence of the "Cambridge idea," which consists in "no-license for Cambridge and rapid transit to Boston." But the "Cambridge idea" is probably the best solution of the liquor problem that we can hope for under the present conditions of society. And a plan which constantly appeals to the intelligence and moral sense of the voter, and which makes impossible such a perversion of legislation as the Raines law, is worthy of consideration both by States which are framing a local-option law *de novo*, and those which are mending their present excise statutes.

THE FINANCIAL SITUATION.

Comptroller Ridgely's speech to the Bankers' Convention at New Orleans last week follows much on the lines of Mr. Vanderlip's speech at Wilmington. Its dominant note is cautious warning. The Comptroller finds his arguments, as did Mr. Vanderlip, in the returns of the national banks themselves, and on this point he naturally speaks with authority. Mr. Ridgely wisely reverts, first, to the great industrial prosperity of the country, and to the fact that the recent strain on the money market has resulted largely from an unparalleled legitimate trade expansion. He notices, also, the great strength shown by the national banks in the recent money-market vicissitudes. But his conclusion is thus expressed:

> "In spite of all this, we cannot disguise the fact that, with reserves running down not only in the reserve cities, but in all the banks of the country, the situation is serious and requires close attention and careful handling. Now is the time for caution and care in bank management."

There will be no real disagreement with the Comptroller's views, as matters are now developing in the market. Our own regret is that Mr. Ridgely and his associates in the Treasury should not have uttered their warning months ago. We have had occasion to point out in these columns many times, during the early half of 1902, this movement of bank reserves and liabilities. The fall in reserve percentage was, in fact, quite as evident in the national-bank returns of July 16 and April 30 as in the recent September showing, which so startled Secretary Shaw. The only difference lay in the fact that September's reports showed that numerous national banks had allowed their reserve percentage to decline below the legally prescribed limitation, whereas the July and April statements proved that such conditions, though not yet attained, were inevitably approaching. Thus we attribute no great value to-day to warnings to the banks to be careful in their dealings. The warning of the markets has already been spoken in a considerably louder tone; and, indeed, the concerted action of the New York banks, a month ago, in the line of restricting loans to Stock Exchange borrowers, was sufficient evidence that the warning had been heard.

With the markets in their present confusion and disorder, and with a feeling of apprehension very generally abroad, we think that the financial community is most anxious now to learn how to get out of the scrape in which its recent excesses have involved it. Mr. Ridgely suggests improvements in the line of an asset currency and of a proper system for handling the public surplus. These proposals are well enough, but they scarcely meet the existing situation. They do not, in our judgment, even explain the situation. We cannot agree with the more or less general view that defective currency laws are to blame for the present troubles. If, indeed, it were true that demand for normal and legitimate business interests had expanded out of proportion to the available bank resources, there would be some force in the argument. But it is not normal requirements of trade which have increased loans of the national banks at the rate of nearly 20 per cent. within two years; nor is it normal trade demand which has filled Europe with American bankers' obligations, constantly subject to a call for immediate payment, and has thereby blocked the usual international movement of exchange. It has not, this year, been even absorption of money by the Treasury which has contracted the money market; the Government has less cash in its vaults than it held a year ago.

The simple truth of the matter, recognized by every observer with his eyes open and his wits at work, is that our eager promoters and speculators pushed their undertakings beyond the limit where available capital was sufficient to bear the burden. When such a situation is faced by any community, the inevitable outcome is liquidation. Some one else must be found to bear the burden, and his terms must be accepted. This is the process now at work upon the markets, and it is the only corrective of the situation. The course of events, regarded from the unbiassed view of the economic critic, has been as logical as any in the history of finance. First, our promoters sold their shares *ad libitum* to the public as partners in the enterprises, Next, when this was a trifle overdone, they offered bonds of the companies to the public. Overdoing this in turn, they resorted directly to syndicates, and thus indirectly to the American banks, to provide the capital and hold the securities until the public's mood should change. The last stage witnessed was the expansion of the promoters' demands beyond even the available resources of the domestic banks, and the resort to European lenders, on an unprecedented scale, to discount our promoting bankers' notes.

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When the foreign capital began, as it did two months ago, to be recalled, the result was not in doubt.

We think that the drastic process of price readjustment and liquidation which has for some weeks been in progress on the New York Stock Exchange, is the application of the proper remedy. It has been perfectly clear that, at the level of "fancy prices" fixed and stubbornly maintained by Wall Street, the real investor would not buy. This being so, and conditions in the markets being what they were, it was incumbent on them to find a level at which such relief could be invited. There was no other way than by the violent decline in prices such as the markets have been witnessing. That the position of affairs, in this regard, is vastly improved over that of two months ago, no intelligent man will doubt.

Whether the readjustment process is or is not reasonably near completion, is a question not easy to answer. The end of stock-market liquidation is apt to come suddenly, showing that the work had been finished before the country as a whole was aware that it was under way. Commercial markets move more slowly; yet they are prone to move in a similar way when the problem is command of foreign capital. The nation, like the individual that has borrowed more than he can pay off conveniently at the moment, will, if it is wise, offer its actual merchandise on terms that the creditor will deem attractive. We do not pretend in this regard to make predictions. But in so far as the present abnormal movement of international exchange against this country is a consequence of our eighty or ninety millions annual increase in importations, it may be corrected by lower prices on domestic markets. In so far as it results from restriction of our exports, a similar remedy is at all events at hand.

LATTER-DAY SUPERSTITIONS.

We are accustomed to say that we live in an age of science and of exact thinking. The future historian of the transition between the nineteenth and twentieth centuries will probably take no such flattering view. He will remember Omdurman; white with the robes of the thousands of dervishes who fell about the Khalifa; the Boxer hordes that hurled themselves upon European squares, secure in the belief that each adept was invincible against the foreigner. If our Mr. Lecky of the future pursues his studies more minutely, he will learn that in November, 1902, some hundreds of Russian fanatics, men, women, and children, turned their cattle loose, and marched, half-starving and half-clothed, through the bleak plains of Manitoba "seeking Jesus," until the local police put an end to their fantastic pilgrimage. In the United States, he will discover that people stricken with dangerous diseases were allowed to die for want of medical attendance. The occurrence, he will discover, was not infrequent; but none the less the sect which by an equal perversion of common sense and the English language held disease and death to be "a claim," boasted hundreds of thousands of adherents, who believed that the founder—a woman almost illiterate and of small intellectual parts—was immortal. Should the future historian remain unconvinced that this was an age of superstition, such facts as the grotesque settlement at Point Loma, Cal. (which is typical of many of the sort), with its pseudo-Buddhistic jargon, its "Aryan temple" approached by an "Egyptian gate" and overlooked by a "hill of the sun," will carry him back to the Middle Ages and the wildest reports of Knight Templarism.

It is a question if our superstitions have as respectable a ground as had those of our ancestors. They believed absolutely in the existence of an unseen world which touched them at every point. No peasant's hovel was too small for the fiend, or the Blessed Virgin, to enter. A keyhole sufficed for a witch or an incubus. Mystery surrounded them and oppressed them. They had to learn to live with it. When we find that they lived serenely and rationally, we commend them for their religion; when the horror or the desire of the unseen things drove them to irrational or bloody deeds, we say they were sunk in superstition. And in an age when practically nothing was explained and the simplest physical phenomena were attributed to supernatural causes, it was inevitable that the merely unusual should seem the portentous, and that there should be in every life hundreds of occasions to release the springs of a fear or an ecstasy.

One would naturally suppose that the progress of science had largely removed the very grounds of superstition. Today every sight, sound, or odor that may frighten us in the dark can in the morning be elaborately explained and analyzed. Mystery has ceased to surround us, and exists only in our own fancy. And the very phantoms of our own minds are fully recorded and classified, if not completely explained. Even in problems of the human emotions, psychology leaves only a narrow margin of the mysterious. What is it, then, that urges us to create mystery where we know it is not, and, having rejected the beautiful, traditional forms of belief in the supernatural, to have recourse to the puerilities of Christian Science or the claptrap of Theosophy? In this matter we are dealing with the superstitions of the educated—a somewhat different thing from the superstitions of the throng. It may fairly be said of the Mad Mullah's followers, of the Mormons and Doukhobors, that they represent an unbroken line of superstition. For science has, after all, entered very little into the thinking of the average man. We are informed by a competent observer that the immigrants in our New York slums actually create a kind of new folk-lore, based upon their changed conditions, and tolerant of the automobile and the trolley-car. But the Point Loma mystics represent a class of people who, having once divested themselves of superstition, have become again, in Herbert Spencer's expressive word, "rebarbarized." Their case requires a special explanation.

Very commonly no further cause than simple flightiness need be sought. Many people exchange agnosticism for Christian Science or Theosophy, for the same reason that they drop pewter and go in for blue china. But there is frequently a finer motive behind rather absurd superstitions. The human mind revolts at what might be called the arithmetical methods of science, is quickly wearied by tables of chemical valency and measurements of heat and sound waves. Granted that this is an infirmity, it is a constant and ineradicable one. As rule and measure go farther in the physical world, the mental world has its revenge in seeking after all manner of mysticism and romanticism. How otherwise explain the numerous cases where psychologists have dropped their study of the normal human mind, and risked health and even reason in the study of occult phenomena? It can only be that the exacter method and the perfectly defined material have seemed less interesting than the tentative method and the dubious material. This temper of mind even finds its apologists, and we are taught to have a kind of horror of the intellect that wishes to be sufficient to itself and refuses to affirm that which it has not proved. "Life is garnished by possibilities and made beautiful by half-beliefs," says a recent writer in the *Spectator*, who urges us to keep our hearts open to ghostly visitants.

One may doubt if such doctrine is greatly needed at this time. We should prefer to see such an appeal to humor and to common sense as should make it impossible to mistake a Mrs. Eddy, a Mrs. Tingley, or an "Elijah" Dowie for a founder of religion. The scientists, too, have something of tolerance to learn. They must contrive to make their austerely impersonal mistress acceptable to average human nature. Rationalism, which ever advances but holds no conquered territory fully in subjection, must find prophets who will plead with the fervor and compelling force of a Ruskin or a Carlyle. Superstition has never failed of persuasive prophets. Rationalism has not yet learned the art of competing with the zealot and the charlatan. To the mass of charlatans or self-deluded leaders of the credulous, it has had but one Huxley to oppose. Small won-

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der that the balance swings temporarily to the side of superstition.

THE MUSEUM OF ST. GERMAIN.

PARIS, November 7, 1902.

St. Germain is famous, as every one knows, for the Pavillon Henri IV. and for the Castle behind it, built by François I.; it is also famous for the Museum in the Castle. No doubt the building strikes you first. Its remarkable state of preservation is due to the fact that, since Napoleon III. to this time of writing, it has been reërected, as money allowed; and the few crumbling stones here and there date from his time. Why he conceived this ruinous passion for St. Germain becomes evident on the ground floor, where his staff of wise men got together everything they needed to write his work on Cæsar's Commentaries on Gaul. Going from there to the top of the palace, you leave Napoleon and plunge into prehistoric Gaul—by which is frequently meant Gaul long after Cæsar, but lost to his refined and historic influence. Walk through these rooms to the last of them and you find what I went to see: a new collection, just presented and soon to be opened, of bits of bone and ivory, carved by beings whom it would be unscientific to speak of as having done anything but exist.

It should be said the collection isn't new. Prehistorians had long known of a gentleman, living in the south of France, who had excavated on his own responsibility, and, as luck would have it, dug close to the roots of the human species. The man himself, M. Piette, was there, in the company of the Curator, when an official friend and I arrived. He was old, somewhat round-shouldered, but full and ruddy in the face, with eager blue eyes. He has published a few pages, rather against his wish, for private circulation; he has written a large book, finished long ago, to which the illustrations were ready years since. But mistrust and love of truth have kept the pages at home, and it is doubtless with regret that he is about to publish, for private circulation, an edition so small as to seem already rare. Let me add, he is one of a class. The French provinces are full of men, without great means and with little education, who suddenly surprise the museums by having long followed, and sometimes, as in this case, with method and keen intelligence, some scientific whim. Here, then, were M. Piette's fruits, and by them will he be judged: flakes and sticks of ivory and bone, scrawled over with designs or carved into various shapes.

They were found in geological strata different from ours. On learning this first, I closed my eyes a moment, being dazed. These are not mastodons and behemoths, which a skilful set of wires and iron poles puts on their legs once more; nor an ichthyosaurus which presumably swam in deep seas where we now live comfortably with an address. This is human work of a high order. Down one stick of ivory were carved several horses' forelegs in fairly high relief, the fetlock and hair being rendered to perfection. There were many bone needles, and plaques about as large as a dollar piece, with quaint designs cut in. A few nude figures, male and female, were more primitive, but not more so than some old French and Italian pieces I have seen. All this dates back—reckon yourself. It was altogether bewildering.

The collector took up one piece, which in his slow but enthusiastic speech he described as an arm, with a cape over the shoulder. My friend, who is an authority and somewhat slower in discerning such things, had rashly described it as a leg, but was converted. One of the nudes wore some sort of suspensory. I confess the dress of this prehistoric generation seemed to me as insufficient as it was hypothetical, and I shall not believe the next writer on these subjects when he describes it as consisting of the things I doubtfully have mentioned.

As I was leaving, some one remarked this was no longer a palace, but the people's palace. A note of Socialism in such surroundings rang out strangely. It is characteristic, however. Old manors, old castles, old buildings of every sort all over France are being turned more and more into museums. The vaulting is repaired to hang curiosities from; and the walls that not so long ago were covered with brocade or painted wainscoting, disappear behind the works of some obscure school of painting. Does the old palace thereby become the people's palace? Is science really humane and social, and is the scholar so much more modest and affable than the courtier or the aristocrat? I should not like to give my opinion on a subject so modern and so obscure.

Meanwhile, my friend and I had emerged on to the roof of the palace. This, and others of course, are each and all the finest views of the country about Paris. The forest on one side, russet and green; the valley of the Seine toward Montmorency, and Paris on the other; the dip and then the hill crowned with the arches of Louis XIV.'s aqueduct over Marly; and round over the slopes and hills west again—this, all in blue hazes and rich autumn lights, made one swear that the French landscape was the only one. Looking down into the courtyard, you saw the wonderful Renaissance building, crowned with the royal coping; a salamander with an F, on which in one case, without great effort, had been hewn an R—I forget if the salamander was there also. A last contrast awaited me on the ground floor. We entered the chapel built by Louis XIII., of which, by the destiny presiding over restorations, only the stone vaulted roof remains. I was lost in making out some old medallions and body-color on it when Science pulled me by the sleeve. The chapel is devoted to a collection of casts of "prehistoric" Gallic tombs, piously disposed, and looking much older than the glass and tracery and stonework—all being of to-day.

Which is the best of all these periods? The most bewildering certainly is M. Piette's. Even if one's interests and studies do not lead one back, or rather down, so far, the Museum of St. Germain is a great school for historic modesty. Nowhere else do you see so clearly what an orderly pandemonium it has been down here ever since the sun first rose, and how preposterous it would be to expect much of the art of ivory-carving when the very tusks *they* worked on *then* came from God knows where.

TRUMBULL STICKNEY.

FERSEN AND MARIE ANTOINETTE.

PARIS, November 1, 1902.

I have had occasion at various times to speak of the historical studies of M. G. Lenôtre on the time of the French Revolution; they are all marked by a very impartial spirit, by almost passionate research for the truth, and by a total independence of any partisanship. In every sense, M. Lenôtre has all the qualifications of a true historian. None of his studies has impressed me more than what he has recently written on a personage whose name will be for ever connected with that of the unfortunate Queen Marie Antoinette. The very name of Marie Antoinette ought to be a remorse to France. Whatever may have been her faults—and in reality they were very trifling—the treatment she received from a country where she arrived almost as a child, and where she became for years a Queen; the terrible martyrdom she had to suffer in punishment of faults which she had not committed, and which were those of generations; and in the end her cruel execution, must fill every Frenchman having any feelings of humanity with pain and shame. I pass almost every day the so-called Expiatory Chapel which was built by order of Louis XVIII. in order to receive the remains of Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette, and I never do so without thinking of these victims of the Revolution.

Marie Antoinette had a real friend, who did all it was possible to do to save her.—I mean Count Axel von Fersen. Fersen belonged to an old Swedish family. In his youth he travelled for three years all over Europe, with a governor. He stayed some time in Brunswick, at a military school; at Turin, where he took lessons in philosophy; at Strasbourg, where he attended lectures on many subjects. After this preparation, in the winter of 1773 he made his début in French society, and was presented at court by his ambassador. He was tall and handsome, with fine manners—"the immense advantage," says M. Lenôtre, "of being a Scandinavian, which gave him an irresistible prestige." Marie Antoinette was only Dauphiness at the time. It was the fashion for the greatest ladies to go to the masked balls at the Opéra. The Dauphiness *intrigued* Fersen (to use the customary expression) at one of those balls; and, after a long conversation, condescended to lift her mask and to make herself known to him. The crowd which surrounded them obliged the Queen to retire to a box. Fersen received on that occasion what the French call the "coup de foudre." This incident decided the whole tenor of his life.

He often saw the Queen again at Versailles; she invariably was very civil to him. He was discreet, respectful, almost timid. Nothing authorizes the comments which were sometimes made on the favor shown to Fersen. The Swedish Ambassador, Count von Creutz, wrote to his King, Gustavus III., at the time when the Dauphiness became Queen (Louis XV. died on May 10, 1774), that "it is not possible to have a wiser and more decent behavior" (speaking of Marie Antoinette). Fersen, however, judged it necessary to leave Paris after Marie Antoinette's accession to the throne. His absence lasted four years; when he returned to Versailles, in August,

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1778, he was received by the Queen as an old acquaintance. In the letters which Fersen wrote to his father, we read: "The Queen, who is the prettiest and most amiable princess I know, has had the kindness to ask after me frequently. She asked Creutz why I did not come to her *jeu* on Sundays." In another letter he writes: "The Queen always treats me with kindness, and I often go and pay court to her at her *jeu*, and she addresses some kind word to me every time. As people had spoken to her of my Swedish uniform, and she expressed a desire to see me in this costume, I shall go in it next Tuesday, not to the Court, but to the Queen. She is the most amiable princess I know."

Jealousy and spite are necessary ingredients of court life—one might say, of worldly life. Creutz writes to Gustave III. this letter, which is kept in the archives of Upsala:

"I must confide to your Majesty that young Count Fersen has been so favorably regarded by the Queen that some persons have felt annoyed by it. I confess I cannot help thinking she has a leaning towards him; I have seen some marks of it which admit of no doubt. The young Count on this occasion showed admirable conduct by his modesty, his reserve, and especially by the resolution he took to go to America. By going away, he removed all possible dangers; but it required a firmness beyond his years to surmount this séduction. The Queen could not take her eyes from him during the last days; when looking at him, her eyes were full of tears. I beg your Majesty to keep this secret to yourself and to Senator Fersen. When the departure of the Count was known, all the courtiers were delighted. The Duchess of Fitzjames said to him: 'What, Sir, you abandon your conquest?' 'If I had made one,' said he, 'I would not abandon it; I go away free, and unhappily without leaving any regrets behind me.' Your Majesty will acknowledge that this answer was marked by a wisdom and a prudence beyond his years."

Fersen came back from America in June, 1783. He accompanied his King in a journey through Germany, Italy, and France. Louis XVI. gave him the colonelcy of the Royal-Swedish regiment; as he was also Colonel in Sweden, he divided his time between Paris and Stockholm. In 1790 he established himself completely in Paris; he had gained the entire confidence of Marie Antoinette, who was in reality friendless.

"We can affirm," justly says M. Lenôtre, "from her letters and those of Mercy [the Austrian Ambassador] that she tried all she could to love her husband, without succeeding completely. Her society at Versailles was composed only of vain men, accustomed to easy successes. Her light-headed brother-in-law, of whom she fears the *polissonneries;* the *mauvais sujet* Tilly, who is her page; the bold Besenval, who attributes the excesses of his language to the license of a soldier; Vaudreuil, skeptical, languishing, full of mannerism; Lauzun, whom she is obliged to dismiss from her presence—all paid their court to her, and it is a wonder that we can affirm, notwithstanding their half-confidences and their mysterious reticence, that none of these puppets tarnished 'the white soul of the Queen.'"

In 1791, when she was abandoned, when the Court had become a prison, Fersen reappears. She knows that he has always loved her; she knows that he is worthy of confidence. We have fortunately some documents which throw a little light on the relations that began at that time. After the flight to Varennes, many papers were seized at the Tuileries and at the houses of the persons who were suspected of having favored this flight; but all of them were not used. After some time, many were kept in the upper part of the Palais de Justice and forgotten for half a century. M. Bimbenet, a lawyer of Orléans, classified them about sixty years ago. M. Lenôtre does not tell us who had the chance of finding among these documents seven letters addressed to Fersen by a lady whose name remains unknown, and which were opened during the inquest that followed the flight to Versailles. The letters had been addressed to him after he had himself left Paris. They were written by a lady who had emigrated to England. Had she been a mistress of Fersen? M. Lenôtre thinks so; at any rate, she loved Fersen passionately, but she had discovered that he had himself a passion for the Queen. "He loved her respectfully, with an irresistible and profound love, all the more since she was isolated and unhappy and he had sworn to save her." The unknown lady had sacrificed her own passion. "I desire," she says, "to see you soon in Stockholm as a brother whom I cherish; I have no other sentiment left for you; I have made this difficult effort to obey you." And in another letter: "You ought to be satisfied with me; I am now at the point which you have desired. I shall feel only friendship for you; I ought never to have had another sentiment, or at least I ought to have concealed it in the bottom of my heart. It is the greatest sacrifice I can make for you." The unknown lady who had received Fersen's dangerous confidence never names the Queen; she calls her "a certain person," or "the person to whom you are attached."

The *émigrés* in London must have known something of Fersen's passion; some of them blamed Fersen for endangering the reputation of the Queen. The unknown lady writes to him: "I have had a quarrel on this subject with my husband; I don't see things as he does, and I think that at this moment you could not do enough to prove your attachment, by not leaving her, and by giving all the proofs of it which depend on you. What others blame, I find sublime, and I cannot but esteem you the more."

Fersen wrote a number of letters, sometimes in cipher, to the Queen; his style, even in cipher, is very guarded; the short answers of the Queen are very affectionate. Some of them, in their brevity, are very touching: "Don't be uneasy. . . . Don't torment yourself too much on my account. . . . When shall we meet again quietly? . . . Adieu, I am wholly yours. . . . . Adieu, my dear Rignon [it is one of the names she gives him in her letters]. I embrace you very tenderly." Fersen had not the courage to destroy all these notes, but he defaced with ink the most intimate parts of them. "We can follow the phases," M. Lenôtre says, "of this reciprocal affection, which was like the last ray of sunshine in the life of the Queen." We must remember that she was a prisoner, that Fersen had but one thought—to take her out of her prison. He was the chief agent of the flight of the royal family. He arranged all the details with Bouillé and Choiseul. He marked the places where the King would find protection. He studied the road, and the relays of the post; he procured false passports, with the help of two foreigners, Quentin Crawford, an Englishman, and the Baroness de Korf, a Russian lady. He procured a travelling chaise, provided money, corresponded with the courts of Austria, Sweden, and Spain. He carried under his arm, day after day, the linen which the Queen needed on the journey; he found maids, he saw to every detail. The postchaise was kept in his stables; he placed in it all the necessaries for the journey. When the night of the flight came, he himself received in an old hackney-coach, in the court of the Tuileries, the King and Queen; he was dressed as a coachman. He took them to the barrier where the postchaise was in waiting, and conducted them himself as far as Bondy. There he parted with them, and a rendezvous was arranged at the Château de Thonnalle, near Montmédy. Two days afterwards, he learned the news of the arrest of Louis XVI.

As soon as she was back in the Tuileries, the Queen writes a word to him: "I exist. . . . How uneasy I have been about you! . . . Don't write to me. . . . . Be easy. The Assembly will treat us mildly. . . . Adieu. I shan't be able to write to you any more." Several letters, however, were still exchanged, with many precautions. On the day of her execution, Marie-Antoinette wrote these lines on a page which still preserves the marks of her tears: "I had friends; the idea of being separated from them forever, and their pain, are one of the greatest regrets I have in dying. Let them know at least that to the last moment I thought of them."

Correspondence.

HISTORY IN WILLIAM AND MARY COLLEGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As several persons seem to be striving in the public prints to acquire for certain colleges the honor of being the first to encourage the study of history, I desire to present the claims of William and Mary. I think that there is no doubt that she was the pioneer college in this interesting field, just as she was the pioneer in the fields of modern languages and of Constitutional and municipal law. Now as early as 1723 the Rev. Hugh Jones, professor of mathematics at William and Mary, suggested the establishment of a chair of history. While the chair was not established until many years after that time, he illustrated the subject in a very intelligent and original manner by writing the 'Present State of Virginia,' the first historical production in America to proceed from the hands and brain of a professor in a college. Thirty years later, William Stith, a graduate of Oxford University, and an historian whose work on Virginia entitles him probably to the first place among American historical writers of the eighteenth century, was President of the College, a circumstance also which may have had its influence in shaping the work of the College in after years. At length, in 1779, Mr. Jefferson, who was himself a great student of history, in connection with Dr. James Madison, President of the College, reformed the College curriculum by introducing the study of the modern languages,

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and of Constitutional and municipal law. In the latter department, although the subject-matter of the chair was civics and law, the questions of Colonial and English history as illustrating the Constitutions of Virginia and of the United States received largely the attention of George Wythe, the celebrated preceptor of the two Virginians, Jefferson and Marshall. Judge Wythe was succeeded by Judge St. George Tucker, whose published lectures on Constitutional law involved the history of the slave question and many other questions coming within the scope of a chair of history.

The first distinct chair of history by that name, however, was that of Louis Hue Girardin, who, under Mr. Jefferson's guidance, wrote the fourth volume of what is known as Burk's 'History of Virginia.' This gentleman was a professor in the College from 1800 to 1805, but, unfortunately, the Faculty book for the period in which he taught is lost. As editor, however, in 1805, of a magazine entitled *Amœnitates Graphicæ*, he styled himself "Late Professor of History and Geography in the University of William and Mary." The instruction imparted by him was assuredly something different from "civil history," which, as a branch of ethics treating of the duties of the citizen and the State, had been taught in the College by the professor of moral philosophy from its earliest inception.

After 1805 the fortunes of the College were very much depressed, but in 1820 a vigorous effort was made by the Board of Visitors to restore the institution to its former usefulness. Rev. Richard Keith was elected professor of "history and humanity," and in regard to him we have fortunately the faithful light of the Faculty book to guide us. He qualified before the Faculty on December 5, 1821. He gave three lectures a week in history and three in the classics. His text-books in the former were Hume's 'History of England' and Ramsay's 'History of the United States.' Mr. Keith served for about a year, when he resigned on account of ill health. In a few years (1826) he was succeeded by Thomas R. Dew, and there can be no question to any one who examines his 'Digest of the History of Ancient and Modern Nations' that he stands in the forefront of all teachers of history in the Union during the period in which he lived. Under his vigorous administration as President, lasting until 1846, the College attained a degree of prosperity never before achieved. His successors in the chair of history were George Frederick Holmes, afterwards for many years professor of history at the University of Virginia, Henry A. Washington, who was employed by Congress to edit the works of Thomas Jefferson, and Robert J. Morrison, whose name is identified with that of President Ewell in the publication of the Historical Catalogue of the College.

This carries us to the war between the States in 1861, when the College was destroyed by the Federal troops. After its restoration on the same walls, the study of history was resumed. In 1898 the subject of American history, linked with that of politics, was separated from the general study of history, and assigned to the duties of the President. This closes a hasty account of the study of History at William and Mary, but I hope the account may prove of some interest to your readers.

LYON G. TYLER,
President and Professor of American History and Politics.

WILLIAM AND MARY COLLEGE,
WILLIAMSBURG, VA., November 11, 1902.

ONE HUNDRED TWENTY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am interested in discovering the originator, or the first user in print, of the expression "one hundred twenty," in place of "one hundred and twenty." Mathematicians say that the elliptical form originated in a desire to avoid ambiguity in reading numbers containing decimals, but I have seen no proof of this. The earliest occurrence of the shorter form that I have found anywhere is in Daboll's 'Teacher's Assistant,' second edition, 1802. (The first edition has not been available.) In this work the form occurs but once (p. 23), and no attention is called to it. After this time I have found no example of the ellipsis, outside of later editions of Daboll's work, until 1848, when it appears as the only form in a "new edition" of Greenleaf's 'National Arithmetic.' From this time on, it occurs with increasing frequency, although it is not the established form until late in the '70's, both expressions being used indiscriminately in the introduction to the 'National Arithmetic,' editions of 1856, 1859, 1862, and 1865. The earliest explicit instruction for the use of the shorter form that I have found is in J. B. Thomson's 'Complete Graded Arithmetic,' published in 1882: "In reading numbers expressed by three or more figures, omit the word *and* after hundreds" (p. 9). The total number of arithmetics that I have examined is 62, and of this number 25 use the longer form. My researches were limited to the collection in the University Library.

In the light of these facts I shall, until I receive further information, hold to the hypothesis that the first appearance of the shorter form was not an invention. It was a sporadic case, a spontaneous variation, which was preserved because it was found useful. The idea that it was invented because of its usefulness in avoiding ambiguity in reading decimals, I shall hold to be a sort of *Volksetymologie*, got up after the fact. But I am open to conviction.

The question interests me, I ought perhaps to say, from the rhetorical standpoint, not from the arithmetical. To the form "one hundred twenty" I have a pronounced antipathy, which is not in the least diminished by my awareness of the economies of the phrase from the mathematical point of view. In part the antipathy is traceable to the circumstances under which I first heard the expression, in part to the sound of the words. The elliptical phrase was first pronounced in my hearing by a pedantic, affected person, whose dress, speech, and manner were alike distasteful to me. A vivid image of this offensive individual arises in my mind as often as I hear the phrase. But the antipathy is strengthened by the seeming collision or huddling of the words due to the dropping of the conjunction. I suspect that many others are similarly disposed toward the expression.

FRED NEWTON SCOTT.

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN, November 12, 1902.

SIMILARITY OF TITLE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In choosing 'Retrospect and Prospect' as a name for Capt. A. T. Mahan's book recently published by Messrs. Little, Brown & Co., and noticed in the *Nation* of November 13 (p. 381), it is an interesting fact that both the author and the publishers seem to have overlooked 'Retrospects and Prospects,' a volume of essays by Sidney Lanier, published by Messrs. Scribner in 1899. GEORGE S. WILLS.

WESTMINSTER, MD., November 14, 1902.

Notes.

The *Journal of Comparative Literature*, to be edited by Profs. George E. Woodberry and J. B. Fletcher and Mr. J. E. Spingarn, and published quarterly by McClure, Phillips & Co., will make its first appearance on January 1, 1903. Its contents will relate to international literature, past and present, and its articles will be printed, as a rule, in the language in which they were written. Leading articles will be followed by signed reviews, and these by abstracts of periodicals. France, Belgium, Denmark, Holland, Switzerland, Germany, Italy, Austria promise collaboration (the new French Ambassador at Washington is on the list of names already published). British and American universities are also counted on for support. Columbia University is the *Journal's* editorial headquarters.

The Complete Works of John Lyly, now for the first time collected, are about to issue from the Oxford University Press under the editorship of R. Warwick Bond, M.A., who furnishes a Life of the author and an estimate of his importance to English literature.

James Pott & Co. announce 'The Builders of the Republic,' by Margherita A. Hamm; 'The Life and Works of R. B. Sheridan,' in two volumes; 'The Inner and Middle Temple,' historical associations, by H. H. Leigh Ballot; 'Five Great Painters of the Victorian Era,' by Sir Wyke Bayliss; and 'The Mediterranean: Its Storied Cities and Venerable Ruins,' by J. T. Bonney.

The indefatigable veteran, Professor Mommsen, will add to the Corpus of Latin Inscriptions published by the Berlin Academy a new volume of considerable size, devoted entirely to the Latin inscriptions found in the Orient. It was in 1873 that he published the first volume of these inscriptions, but meanwhile there has been such an accumulation of new material that a further volume has become a necessity. His co-laborers are his pupils, Hirschfeld and Domaszewski.

From Herbert B. Turner & Co. of Boston comes a new series of standard classics represented at the outset by Swift's 'Tale of a Tub' and Stevenson's 'Virginibus Puerisque.' The volumes are of a size for the pocket, though a little heavy for that conveyance, are clearly printed in large type, and, if one may judge by the clever reproduction of an eighteenth-century ruled page which the 'Tale' presents, are to be individualized typographically. The Stevenson booklet, with its top-heavy headlines, shows the dangers that attend such experiments.

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The "Century Classics" of the Century Company, with their all-round excellence of manufacture, proceed with Lamb's 'Essays of Elia' and Sterne's 'Sentimental Journey,' the latter eked out with Thackeray's damnatory character of Sterne, from the 'English Humorists,' by way of preface. Whether this is likely to prove an antidote or an appetizer for the Young Person, the student of human nature will decide. But this handsome series is not for youth especially.

Whatever one may think of Kenneth Grahame's 'Dream Days' as a book for children, there can be no question of the delightful quality of Mr. Maxfield Parrish's illustrations to the new edition elegantly brought out by John Lane. Imagination, grace, and humor are appropriately mixed in them, and the draughtsman's hand is always firm. Whatever he borrows he makes his own. The unindexed tailpieces, as well as the full-page designs, will not escape notice and commendation. The cover is hardly up to the general level.

Two papers, ascribed with certainty to Thackeray, in *Fraser's Magazine* (1837-39), viz., "A Word on the Annuals" and "Our Annual Execution," have been tastefully reprinted in Philadelphia by H. W. Fisher & Co., under the title of the second paper, which contains the original form of Thackeray's ballads "The Knightly Guerdon" and "The Almacks' Adieu." It also includes, as a favorable selection from the Annual under review, Monckton Milnes's "I wandered by the brookside." The reprint is verbatim from *Fraser;* and the edition is limited.

Mr. J. P. Mowbray's 'A Journey to Nature,' having given pleasure to the readers of the *Evening Post*, passed naturally, with some revision and addition, into book form, and now reappears with illustrations by Henry Troth (Doubleday, Page & Co.). These are of two sorts, pen-drawn vignettes and full-page photographic views, each to be praised in their way. In his chapter on Indian Summer, Mr. Mowbray recognizes only the "laggard days in November . . . left behind in the autumnal procession." Either we have already had our "spell," beginning in October and overlapping the third week in November, or the sufferers from the coal famine have yet a respite in store for them.

Canon Rawnsley has well earned his reputation as the most diligent and devout exponent of the cult of the English Lakes and the Lake School. 'A Rambler's Notebook at the English Lakes' (Glasgow: James MacLehose & Sons), is the fifth volume of his impressions of Lake scenery and the life of the dalesmen from the point of view of one for whom every path that Wordsworth may have trodden is hallowed, every stone on which Southey may have sat an object of admiring awe. For a somewhat limited circle of readers, the remotest connections, the most trivial reminiscences of the "Lakers" possess an interest which to outsiders appears almost miraculously inexhaustible; and to the mere Philistine, positively morbid. There are those, fit though few, who will read, in the proper spirit, of the habits and last years of Wordsworth's "cousin once removed," and of the Canon's pilgrimage, each year piously renewed, to the "jocund company" of the Duddon daffodils. We confess to a preference for the essay on otter-hunting or the description of the November glories of Derwentwater. Canon Rawnsley has a pretty gift for describing the various phases of outdoor life in the north country; it is the more to be regretted that his enthusiasm too often borders on the mawkish; too often illustrates the fact that, to a certain form of Wordsworthian "pietas," it is impossible to walk safely within the narrow limits of the sublime. The Essay on the "Diamond Jubilee Bonfires" is a collection of patriotic statistics that is hardly worthy of republication in a permanent form. The volume is adorned with reproductions from photographs of the Lake district, and has the usual accompaniment of the author's original verse.

Mr. W. S. Crockett's 'Scott Country' (London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan) is a rambling book, full of borderside lore thrown into simple form. Those to whom it is a delight in itself to linger over the names of Eildon, Yarrow, Traquair, Teviot, for whom not only Scott but Hogg and Leyden have charms as binding as those in the book of Sir Michael and as straight from faerie as the rhymes of True Thomas—they will turn these pages and pass back for a while among the border hills, under the gray sky, by the dark streams. To all such the book can be commended. To others it will be a thing of naught. Mr. Crockett's literary powers are trifling; his naïveté is astonishing. Yet his love of the border goes far to save him. The best in his book is its mist of memory, its wealth of illustrations, often very good, and the numberless ballad notes, of which it is full.

The only link in 'The Holy Land, Painted by John Fullylove, Described by John Kelman' (Macmillan), between the illustrations and the text is that both are impressionistic, full of color, and lacking in detail. Otherwise, they appear to have no relation of origin or plan. Mr. Fullylove's water colors have been most skilfully reproduced. They undoubtedly render the land with accuracy, but are lacking in artistic charm. There is little feeling for distance, but some bits of water are very prettily caught, and the more architectural scenes have often a gorgeous reality. Mr. Kelman, on his side, is a close follower of Prof. George Adam Smith. He has not Dr. Smith's luminous power of interpreting geography, but he has picturesqueness and vocabulary, and can turn ideas into sharp-cut concrete facts, or what may pass for such. Fortunately for his method, his first rapture of observation was not deadened by too greatly widened experience; we have impressions here, and not studies. These are always vigorous, and may sometimes be correct; but the six months' tourist who ventures a hundred pages on "The Spirit of Syria" has more even than the courage of his kind, and must be read with caution. Yet—or perhaps therefore—the book is most readable, and fairly fits its illustrations.

Prof. William MacDonald, now of Brown University, but recently of Bowdoin College, treats of 'The Government of Maine' in Macmillan's series of Handbooks of American Government. This series is intended for the use of students in high schools and academies, but we doubt if they can profitably spend their time in acquiring information which is, except to specialists, of the driest character. The work before us certainly gives a clear and accurate account of the governmental machinery of the State, and to a considerable extent summarizes its laws; but the severe compression which is unavoidable with such an abundance of material is not favorable to literary effect. As a political organization, Maine is of interest to the rest of the world chiefly because of its liquor law; but, for obvious reasons, no frank discussion of this subject is here prudent, and it is dismissed with a few lines. Our strictures, however, must be taken as applying to the plan of the series, and not to the manner in which the author has performed his task, which is altogether praiseworthy.

Dr. George Willis Botsford, formerly of Harvard, but now connected with Columbia University, has issued an 'Ancient History for Beginners' (Macmillan), intended to comply with recent action of the American Historical Association, encouraging the schools to give a year to ancient history, "with special reference to Greek and Roman history, but including also a short introductory study of the more ancient nations." This volume follows Dr. Botsford's other books in its bright, readable presentation, and in its copious use of maps and illustrations. Brightness of statement occasionally shows signs of degeneration, and the illustrations sometimes sustain no relation to the contiguous text. The introductory portion, devoted to the Orient, is too brief (forty pages) to be of much value, but it could hardly be otherwise in a book predetermined to treat Greece and Rome in detail, down to the time of Charlemagne, and occupy but one year with classes of beginners. The 400 pages given to Greece and Rome suffer in many ways from the same hard-and-fast conditions. The various lines of development over so long a period cannot be kept fairly in hand and compressed into so few pages without a rigid exclusion of detail, unless it be of the very highest importance. But in the details which would thus be excluded are naturally to be found just the things best adapted to hold the attention of boys and girls in beginners' classes. Dr. Botsford has not solved the insoluble problem thus presented. Pericles, Demosthenes, Alexander, Scipio, Sulla, Cicero, Tiberius, Trajan, and the rest crowd one another across the stage so rapidly that the mind neither gets an adequate impression of their character as men, nor a coherent view of their respective significance in the development of human history.

The sixteenth volume of Mr. Slater's 'Book-Prices Current' (London: Elliot Stock) makes its pick from auction sales in 1901-'02 of 51,000 lots, aggregating £163,207 in amount realized (much the largest in ten years, though the average falls below last year's). The steady increase in the proportion of miscellaneous works is noted by the editor, along with the demand for books having colored plates. As usual, apart from the Bible, the Shakspere competition leads all others. More of Shelley's works are recorded than of Byron's or Tennyson's; Browning, in spite of Browning Societies, hardly cuts a figure. 'Romola' alone represents George Eliot, and brought £19, partly, if not wholly, because of the author's inscription. Dickens slightly outstripped Thackeray, and both ranged substantially with Scott. Boccaccio was more to the fore than Dante; of Petrarch only six copies, all told, were put up. Vol-

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taire overshadowed Rousseau. William Morris's admirers for his own sake showed up well. His Kelmscott Press publications under the hammer numbered nine; those of the Vale Press, four.

The excellent little 'American Jewish Year-Book' is now so regular a publication that it calls only for mere mention. Its interest lies in its chronicle of the year, of the Rumanian question and anti-Semitism generally; of Jewish societies, charitable and otherwise, including the Baron de Hirsch fund; and of the Zionist movement. In all, there is much sociological material. As usual, the book is weighted with the report of the Jewish Publication Society, and its seventy-odd pages of members' names.

The last volume of Dr. Rodkinson's translation of the Babylonian Talmud, giving the tract 'Sanhedrin,' is even liker than its predecessors, in respect to its fine mixed feeding, to the proverbial sheepshead. From lawyers to sociologists and folklorists, even to the pursuers of the jests of the market-place, all will find their quarry here. There have been, for example, accusations against the builders of detective stories that their labors went to give suggestions to criminals. But here we read how Rabbi Jose lectured once on Job xxiv. 16, and treated the subject so luminously that next night there were three hundred burglaries in the town, all according to his method. Naturally, "the town-men troubled him." He replied; "How could I know that all of you were thieves?"—which is a fairly valid criticism on many theories of the prevention and propagation of crime. In a short preface, Dr. Rodkinson, if we understand him rightly, indicates his adhesion to a most extraordinary theory of the origin of the Sanhedrin, pushing it back to Moses, and even to Noah. This cannot but suggest a doubt as to the scholarship of his translation, which is evidently a free one. It would be well, too, if he could secure some revision of his English style. There are *anacolouthu* and some curious verbal usages. A translation like this is worth sub-editing.

The compiler of the Century Company's 'Bible for Children,' Mrs. Joseph Gilder, is to be heartily congratulated on the taste, courage, and discretion which she has showed. The Authorized Version has been used, and there has been no finical cutting except of absolutely impossible passages, and no additions or changes. The result is wonderfully readable and infinitely better than the "Bible Stories" of our childhood. Children with these cadences in their ears will surely—not to speak of graver matters—hold fast their heritage of pure English. But it is a blunder with ethical elements in it that on the title-page there is no mention of the compiler. Instead are given the names of Dr. Francis Brown of Union Seminary and Bishop Potter, the one of whom is responsible for four pages of preface and the other for two of introduction. These, unfortunately, are addressed to the parent and not to the child, and, if they come to be read by a child of even ordinary intelligence, may do much mischief. He cannot be helped by learning that we think it well for his advantage to cut some things from the Bible. Nor will the clumsy apology appease him that "care for childhood prompts this, and not blame for the Bible." Still worse is it for him to learn that "many are indifferent to the Bible." All this explaining, apologizing, and protesting may be excellent in its place, but that place was not here, in a book to go into a child's hands. Its place, at the most, would have been on a few leaves, separate and removable, or on one of those slips, suggestive to the indolent reviewer, which prudent publishers now send out in their books. Added are twenty-four illustrations, all from great paintings, but not all from "the old masters," as stands on the same unhappy title-page. There is a schoolgirl in anecdote who assures a friend that she has an uncle in Rome, "one of the old masters." It is only less startling to find Rubens, Murillo, Rembrandt, Van Dyck, and Sir Joshua Reynolds figuring under that rubric. But the part of the book which is good is very good; the compiler has done her task well.

Johns Hopkins University preserves the record of its anniversary celebration (the twenty-fifth) in a neat volume printed at the University Press, Baltimore, Md. This book contains the addresses in full, a list of delegates from other institutions, a register of alumni attending the celebration, and an account of the presentation of a jubilee volume to Prof. Gildersleeve by his former students; in all, a record which all Hopkinsians and others who attended the ceremonies of last February will wish to possess.

The proceedings at the celebration of the two-hundredth anniversary of the founding of Yale College, a year ago, are recorded in a sumptuous volume now published by the University. The number of functions crowded into four memorable days has made it difficult to do them all justice within reasonable compass, and there is little attempt to describe the spectacular effects that constituted so marked a feature of the occasion. Much space is necessarily given to programmes and lists which are of course unreadable, and of some of the longer addresses only abstracts are given. Professor Fisher's admirable account of the relation of Yale College to theology and missions, however, well deserved to be republished without abbreviation, and it occupies fifty of the 600 pages of the record. The book seems to be in all respects a fit memorial of a celebration which may well be called glorious.

The Bibliographical Contributions of the Library of Harvard University have just been resumed, after a pause of four years. No. 54 fitly consists of a bibliography of Justin Winsor, by William F. Yust. Mr. W. C. Lane, Mr. Winsor's successor, calls attention to the remarkable chronological exhibit thus made of Mr. Winsor's insatiable and varied activity. On pp. 29, 30, Mr. Winsor's contributions to the *Nation* 1880-1896, are listed by themselves. A blank book labelled "Poems of Art and Nature," original and translated, was found among his effects, arranged as if for publication.

German topics, including regulations for insurance companies, the Slaby-Arco system of wireless telegraphy, and economic conditions occupy the principal place in the Consular Reports for November. Other subjects treated are the American plough and the Russian farmer, and the Lyons congress for protection against hail. The testimony as to the efficiency of the "grelifuge cannon" was conflicting, but it was unanimously voted "to continue the war against hail, on condition that it should be done systematically." The Department of the Rhone "claims to have established the first cloud-firing post. It now has 834 cannon, covering 45,000 acres of vineyards." Our Consul-General at Yokohama reports an increase of the foreign trade of Japan, but a decrease in value of more than 31 per cent. of goods purchased from this country. The falling off has been chiefly in materials for bridges and buildings, telephones and wire.

The Quarterly Statement for October of the Palestine Exploration Fund is largely given up to Mr. Macalister's report of the excavations at Gezer. The principal results have been "the discovery of sections of a great city wall, of a most important burial-cave, the examination of which has thrown much light on the physical characteristics, funerary customs, and pottery of some of the earliest races of Palestine; of a small *temenos* or high place, containing a stone circle; and of a considerable variety of objects belonging to the later stone age and the bronze age of culture." Some of these antiquities are similar to those found in corresponding strata at Tell el-Hesy, but not in other tells. This suggests the possibility of a close racial connection between the two places, a supposition which is strengthened by the fact that, when Joshua besieged Lachish, "Horam, king of Gezer, came up to help Lachish" (Josh. x. 33). The report is very fully illustrated. Gen. Sir C. W. Wilson discusses the question as to the authenticity of the traditional sites of Golgotha and the Holy Sepulchre.

The German Orientgesellschaft, with headquarters in Berlin, is enlarging its field of operations, and has begun researches in Egypt. Hitherto the diggings have been confined to Babylon, where Dr. Koldewey has made splendid progress; although the number of inscriptions found has been few, other archæological matter has been unearthed in satisfactory amounts. The Gesellschaft, as is openly stated, has far-reaching schemes, the purpose being to establish in Berlin collections of materials for the study of Orientalia that will, if not rival that of the British Museum, yet to a certain degree make it unnecessary for German and other savants from the Continent to go to London for their materials. Complaints have been repeatedly made that the authorities of the British Museum do not welcome scholars from abroad, as was the case in former years. The German society, under the direction of Professor Delitzsch, who has been in the Orient for some five months, has begun its Egyptian work near Cairo, with rich results. Dr. Ludwig Bornhardt is in charge of these researches, and has already published a preliminary account of the undertaking.

The famous Barberini library, containing more than 60,000 volumes, has been purchased by the Vatican authorities. The Italian Government learned of the sale too late to make an offer, and could only satisfy itself that the law for the protection of works of art had not been violated in the transaction, as the sale included only books and manuscripts, but not the picture gallery or statues, or even the family archives. Leo XIII. has expressed his purpose to erect a special building for the reception of these new treasures, and proposes to give scholars free access to the collection.

From Lemcke & Buechner we receive the first calendars for 1903, viz., the seventh

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"Meyer's Historisch-Geographischer Kalender" and the "Münchener Kalender," the latter with its customary series of colored arms of German princes and counts, begun in 1895. Meyer, with its illustrations, leaf by leaf, covers the whole globe impartially. Its anniversary department has been enlarged, and a planetary table is now given for the first of each month.

—A new edition of William Ellery Channing's 'Thoreau, the Poet-Naturalist' (Boston: Charles E. Goodspeed) will be welcome to all lovers of Thoreau except those who delight in having what others cannot buy. The first edition was exhausted some time since, though it sold at first very slowly. Thoreau's growing reputation came to the assistance of the book's inherent quality, which did not tend to popular appreciation. It is no enemy, but Mr. Sanborn, who describes it as obscure and enigmatical, and, though rich in recondite learning, without much method, or with a method of its own baffling to most people. Mr. Sanborn, in his introduction to the new edition, tells us with what perversity the first was made. As early as 1853, Channing planned a series of imaginary conversations, in which Thoreau, Emerson, and Alcott, with himself, were to be the interlocutors. Much work was done upon this line, but none of it utilized until 1863, when a part of Channing's 'Thoreau' was sent to Mr. Sanborn, then editing the Boston *Commonwealth*, for publication in that paper. A break in the publication excited Channing's ire, and he recalled the unprinted portion of his manuscript. When 'Thoreau, the Poet-Naturalist' appeared in 1873 it was very different from the papers of ten years before. Its main peculiarity was the introduction of sixty-seven pages, taken from the projected 'Walks' of 1853, in response to the publisher's desire for matter to enlarge the book. One remembers that, similarly, Goethe added to 'Wilhelm Meister' "The Confessions of a Fair Saint," and, here as there, the addition is extremely good. But it is made up of conversations the participants in which were at first left to the reader's guesswork. In the new edition Mr. Sanborn has prefixed, or affixed, their names in most cases, eking out Channing's manuscript hints with his own judgment. As it now stands, no part of the book is more interesting and important than this. But every part of it is treasure-trove for those who care much for Thoreau and his Concord friends. Mr. Channing's self-revelation is not the least valuable part of it. His thought and style are often wilfully eccentric and obscure, but there is more than enough of excellent matter, original and quoted, to condone every fault. Nothing else written about Thoreau comes so close to his life and mind as this delightful and exasperating incoherency. Mr. Goodspeed maintains his reputation for beautiful bookmaking, both in this simple and inexpensive and in the larger and more costly style in which the book is published.

—The 'History of the English Church,' which is being edited by Dr. Stephens, the Dean of Winchester, will eventually comprise seven volumes. Of these, four have already appeared, if we include the instalment just published by Mr. James Gairdner (Macmillan). Indeed, we have before us, as yet unnoticed, the last two volumes of this learned and important series. The Rev. W. W. Capes, in the third volume, covers the whole of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, while Mr. Gairdner, in the fourth, continues the narrative through the Reformation period as far as the reign of Mary. In glancing over Canon Capes's table of contents we observe that Wyclif is the only religious leader who receives a chapter to himself. Archbishop Peckham, and Archbishop Winchelsey are also mentioned in separate titles, but we must count them among ecclesiastics rather than among guides of the nation in matters of personal religion. Courtenay does not give his name to a chapter, nor does Wykeham. We may resume by stating that Canon Capes finds much more to say about general subjects like "The Mediæval Bishop and his Officials," "The Cathedral Chapters and their Staffs," "The Clergy and Parish Life," "The Monastic Life," "Friars and Pilgrims," "Schools and Universities," than he does about distinguished individuals—if we except Wyclif. In one respect which we may name, this volume is particularly successful. Canon Capes's predecessors have tended to give Lollardy such prominence as to dwarf everything else in the church history of England during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. That this is the most prominent and important subject, if one only be selected, we should be the last to deny. Still, there is a large literature already upon Wyclif and his movement, while the state of the church for fifty years before and seventy-five years after has been unduly neglected by students trained in modern methods of research. Canon Capes's little books on 'The Early Empire' and 'The Age of the Antonines' are so good that his attempt in another and far different field is sure to awaken interest. Certainly no one will feel a sense of disappointment in reading the present sketch. It is strong and graphic, learned and thoughtful. The narrative part is good, not to say unexceptionable in a book of this scope, but the performance reaches an unusually high quality when chronicle is left behind and the discussion of broad ecclesiastical topics begins. As filling a gap in accessible literature, we should think that no volume of the series is likely to prove so useful.

—To Mr. James Gairdner has fallen the difficult and delicate task of writing that part of this consecutive history which deals with the revolt from Rome. Not only is it a great labor to master the available sources of information, but time has not yet adjusted the point of view. A good example of the obstacles which have to be surmounted is furnished by Mr. Gairdner's preliminary remarks on the word "heresy." Now that the Christian world is divided into so many bodies, "heresy" and "schism" have almost lost their meaning. In the age of the Reformation, on the contrary, "the unity of the Church was not only the generally received doctrine, but was also a doctrine which the state felt bound to uphold. The rulers of the state might seek to put the Church under new conditions; they might even seek to discredit some old doctrines. Both these things they did attempt; and, whatever we may think of their conduct, they succeeded largely in their aims. But this did not affect the old belief, held even by reformers, in one true Catholic and Apostolic Church." The test case is that afforded by the period which Mr. Gairdner terms "the Edwardine anarchy"; but even at this time of radical innovation the leaders of revolt were seeking to find "the essential principles of the one true Church." "Heresy," and herein lies an initial difficulty, must throughout be used in a sense which is unlike its ordinary sense. Mr. Gairdner, when he speaks of heresy, does not refer in any way to the truth or falsehood of particular doctrines. He alludes simply to "an arrogant and pertinacious denial of doctrines laid down by authority; and where no competent authority had as yet declared old beliefs superstitious, it was really heresy to dispute them." Thus we encounter a difficulty on the threshold—a difficulty of phrase which is grave enough to demand a whole preface for its explanation. The disputed points involved in any history of the English Reformation are so numerous that they could barely be touched on in a long article. Here we shall only commend Mr. Gairdner's book as a model of learning and fairness, unless, perhaps, we quote one contention which is made on the concluding page. "In the Thirty-nine Articles and in the English Prayer-book itself, the final results of the Reformation were embodied, so far as doctrine and devotion were concerned; and it would be difficult to overestimate their value. No formularies were ever drawn that give so much liberty to the human mind. Truth had been well tested by martyrdoms on either side before they were finally adopted; and while they repudiated the exclusiveness of Rome, they raised no barrier to the freest thinking consistent with belief in revelation. They constitute a more real catholicism than that of the Council of Trent." Such a statement must, naturally, have an ex-parte sound; but Mr. Gairdner cannot for a moment be accused of writing his history to support this view.

—Dr. Alexander Schmidt's 'Shakespeare Lexicon' (Berlin: G. Reimer; New York: G. E. Stechert; Lemcke & Buechner) needs no introduction either to scholars or to the public at large. It has often been characterized as the most useful work ever composed in elucidation of Shakspere, and this description can hardly be rated as unduly enthusiastic. The plan of the book and its execution are alike admirable, and no one is likely to echo the ungenerous words that a distinguished Shaksperean had the misfortune to utter when it first appeared, some thirty years ago. The question is not whether "Schmidt is an *authority*": Schmidt is *indispensable*, and never ought to get out of print. Nor should the text of the lexicon be altered. What is wanted is an occasional reimpression, and additions or corrections should be confined to an appendix. Fortunately, the publisher is wise, and, the book being stereotyped, his interests coincide with his judgment. The third edition, now before us, is practically unchanged, so far as the body of the book is concerned. The sensible remark of the author, in the preface to the second edition, appeals to every purchaser's heart: "Nobody is so rich as not to repine at being obliged to buy the same book three or four times." The present edition, however, has a valuable supplement of about thirty pages, prepared by Professor Sarrazin, well known for his studies in the literary history of "Hamlet." This consists of "new renderings and interpretations," selected, for the most part,

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from English commentators, who, Dr. Sarrazin thinks, are the "most legitimate" interpreters. We note, with amusement, that he makes a sharp distinction between Englishmen and Americans, associating the latter, presumably as aliens, with "Dutch and German scholars." But no harm is done and our feelings are not hurt. By the doctor's leave, we shall still do our best to speak and read our mother tongue, which Alexander Schmidt understood so well—rather better, we see, than his editor, who speaks of "commentators *of* the great poet" where the idiom requires *on*.

VILLARI'S ITALIAN LIFE.

Italian Life in Town and Country. By Luigi Villari. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1902.

When we consider how entirely distinct in most characteristics the provinces forming United Italy are, we must agree with our author that it is no easy task to give a just idea of Italian social life in a short volume. The broad demarcations of north and south, with the strongly marked individuality of their different populations, cannot escape the notice of the most casual observer; but not only the provinces differ essentially in character, thought, manners and customs, cookery, etc.; each important city seems to have retained its own particularities which in the past gave a stamp to the architecture, painting, and sculpture of each place.

In the north the people are industrious, active, full of business enterprise and capacity; they take the lead in politics and in social questions, and consider themselves vastly superior to their southern compatriots, for whom they do not trouble to hide their contempt. The population of the *Alta Italia* provinces consider themselves wronged in having to pay high taxes in order to support the Meridionali in idleness, while the latter are equally dissatisfied, complaining that the Government has always been more favorable to the north, promoting its industries with protectionist tariffs, making more railways and instituting more schools than for them. Moreover, in spite of the depressing conditions of its agriculture, the south, taxed just as heavily, has never received any aid from Government, besides having to endure the most incompetent officials, who seem to be reserved for important Government posts in the south. Before the Union, the debt of the Meridionali was very light, while now they share the public debt equally, notwithstanding the great sacrifices they made and the important part they played in the work of unity. Yet even in the south there is visible improvement. Bari and Naples are becoming important centres of commerce. The great reproach the Meridionali have to bear is on account of their terrible criminal record, and the institutions of the Mafia, the Camorra, and brigandage; the last still surviving in Sicily, as in Calabria and Le Puglie, where occasional cases transpire, though it is no longer an organized power in the province of Naples as of old.

Besides these differences of character, our author cites instances of local rivalries of cities, having their sources in historical feuds; for example, Siena, where to this day Florentines are treated with scant hospitality on account of the battle of Montaperti, in 1260, when the Sienese defeated the Florentines, and became for a while the ruling power in Tuscany. The Sienese attribute all their present difficulties to the jealousy and enmity of the Florentines. They even consider the inefficient train service between the two cities as a result of Florentine bad feeling; on the other hand, they decline to organize any more convenient trains, as it might bring more Florentines to their city to damage their own commercial prospects by rivalry. This provincial exclusiveness is called the "spirito di campanile," and prevails in such towns as Pisa, Arezzo, Volterra, Montepulciano and San Gemignano, while at Rome the pride of Roman citizenship extends from its princes, who hold themselves superior to reigning families, to the beggar, who is superbly contemptuous in his acceptance of small favors.

Our author, writing on the aristocracy, considers that "good society" translates what is meant by *aristocrazia*, for bankers, merchants, manufacturers come under this denomination. Plutocracy has great influence here as everywhere. Titles are very common, there being no law of primogeniture in Italy, besides which they are frequently adopted by those who have no right to them. On the other hand, there are many of the most ancient and noble families in Venice and Lombardy descended from burghers of the free cities, "optimates," who are called *nobili* or *patrizii* without bearing any title. In the early days of Italian unity the Piedmontese nobles had much influence in the government of the new state; they were the King's immediate advisers, and are said to have promoted the common good as far as it was in their power. Their special importance ceased when Turin was no longer the seat of government, though some of them still take part in politics. They are as a class intelligent, cultured, and interested in commerce and general progress. The Lombard nobles, both for their immense wealth and for their active participation in commerce and industry, take the most prominent position among the upper classes. They travel much, and entertain with munificence at their splendid villas about the lakes, in the Brianza or on the plains. It is to their initiative that the Lombard towns owe their prosperity. The Tuscan nobility have the quality of being good landlords; they live on their estate part of the year, on friendly terms with their peasants, although their headquarters are at their ancestral palace in the town to which they belong, and where, as the one relic of their commercial origin, one often sees a little shop door in some out-of-the-way corner with Canova di Vino over it, in which wine and oil are sold at retail. Tuscan nobles are considered intelligent and shrewd, but extremely conservative and narrow-minded, and rather mean. Their innate courtesy and fear of interfering with the prejudices of their neighbors make them very inefficient in politics, and their economical instincts prevent them from being hospitable, even when they are quite wealthy. The métayer system of land culture brings about a feeling of part proprietorship with the peasant, and fosters that healthy republican feeling so noticeable in Tuscany. The aristocrats of the south are mostly absentees from their estates, exercising feudal rights in defiance of the law, and exacting money returns from their lands, which are managed by extortionate bailiffs. They care only to make a show in Naples or Palermo or Rome, with fine carriages, smart clothes, and other luxuries. When in their old fortified castles in Calabria or Sicily, they live like feudal barons, and ride about with armed retainers, who are devoted to them, although the peasants on their estates, suffering as they do from their callous indifference to their welfare, regard them often with sullen hatred.

Titles are often acquired, either by giving large sums to charities, or by purchasing a landed estate to which one is attached; sometimes they are given as a reward for public services either in the army or in politics. Another very striking manner described by our author is by adoption, as follows:

"There are a great many titled people, especially in the south, who have gone down in the world and who exercise the humblest professions to earn their bread. The aspirant to nobility—a wealthy contractor, or a fortunate speculator in stocks—discovers one of these *nobili decaduti* and persuades him for a consideration to adopt him as his son. At the death of the chimney-sweeping prince or the cabman earl, the parvenu adopted son inherits the title, and plain Signor Donatini blossoms forth into the Principe di Torre San Gennaro, with coat of arms, coronet, family portraits, and liveries all complete. His position, however, is not altogether an enviable one, as he is much laughed at by all who know the story, and everybody does get to know it."

The dislike for work is the bane of the upper classes. The prejudice that a gentleman should occupy himself with landed property only is gradually giving place to more enlightened ideas, but young aristocrats brought up in priestly colleges are not fit for anything but the usual life of the butterflies of fashion, so similar in every country. There are in Italy many young, healthy men who prefer to spend their time in cafés, the theatres, and sauntering about the streets on a meagre income to turning their attention to any useful work. Mr. Villari considers that even among the laboring classes work is looked upon as a painful necessity, and that, were it possible, most people would lead an idle life.

The factors of the great differences of character among Italians of different provinces are shown to be the climate and the government to which each province has been subjected for centuries. For instance, Austrian rule in Lombardy, so oppressive in political matters, seems to have been beneficent in developing a business capacity and public spirit, and fostering an appreciation of honest civil administration. The language also varies immensely in its dialects, so that even Italians sometimes seem to be talking an unknown language when they use their special dialect before a compatriot of a far-off province. In the south there are remains of Albanian and Greek colonies, and in Sicily and Sardinia the race partly derives from the Arab, but the population of the mainland has been composed for centuries of different groups of the same race. Notwithstanding all these diversities and discordant elements, a unanimous feeling pervades all Italy of the great importance of the union of the kingdom. As a signal proof that there never has been any political party based on regional particularism of any significance, Mr. Villari recalls the proposal of some Milanese Radicals and Socialists to create a separate state with Milan for capital. This plan was so unpopular that they withdrew it of their own accord. On the formation of a Cabinet by a new minister the first consideration

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seems not the fitness of each member for his post, but that ministerial honors should be equally distributed among Lombards, Tuscans, Romans, Piedmontese, and Sicilians. The same sense of fairness to all regulates the creation of new Senators and the conferring of honors. Conscription has done much to encourage a sense of brotherhood from the necessity of speaking Italian instead of the special dialects. The military authorities make it a rule also to have men of all the different provinces serve together, and they learn thus by hearsay of the condition of the whole country.

We believe Mr. Villari to be mistaken when he says there is no feeling in Italy against the Jews; we should say that there is a strong prejudice against them. Even the wealthiest are often at great disadvantage in society, but they are tolerated on account of large donations of money or public services of some kind. Foreigners are not generally admitted to Italian society unless they are especially introduced to some leading members. So many of the noble families have married American and English women that the exclusiveness of former times is gradually disappearing.

The love of outward show is a striking feature in Italian life. Great sacrifices of personal comfort are made for the sake of appearances, especially in the south. Our author says:

"In Naples and Palermo, life is not considered worth living without a carriage. The following anecdote illustrates this feeling: An American gentleman who was spending the winter in Naples, had taken a flat in a palazzo, the first floor of which was occupied by a noble family in somewhat reduced circumstances. He noticed to his surprise that every day he met a servant going up or down the stairs carrying a pair of carriage doors. At last the mystery was explained. The said noble family shared a carriage with some other people, but each had its own doors with the family coat of arms to make their friends believe they both had carriages!"

This love of display is especially noticeable in dress. The women of all classes wear very smart clothes out of doors, love brilliant colors, and spend much money and thought on fine apparel, but we do not agree with our author that Italian ladies wear their jewels in the daytime more than the English—on the contrary, it is only at important evening receptions or state functions that foreigners have an opportunity of seeing Italian ladies wearing their splendid jewels, the heirlooms of their families. In England, at the present moment, the display of ornaments and rare gems begins at breakfast.

Great frankness is a striking characteristic of this instructive little book. The author writes of what he knows from his own experience; he has observed much, and recognized many of the deficient sides of the Italian character—the general slackness, the want of moral conscience, the absence of any high ideal, shown in a general desire to shirk difficulties, from the schoolboy at his examination who resorts to cribs, to the politician who makes use of the Mafia for his election. The subject of public education, so important to a young nation, has much occupied the Italian Government, which expends vast sums on the national schools and universities. In his chapter on this subject, Mr. Villari has had his father's (Prof. Pasquale Villari) valuable writings and researches to consult, so that what he says bears the stamp of unquestionable authority. He points out that the great mistake has been to apply the same order of schools throughout a country where the degree of civilization is so unequal, and where, for practical purposes, different schemes of education are necessary. There are five standards of elementary education, of which three are compulsory, unless parents undertake to have their children taught at home. The number of illiterates still existing throughout the country proves that the law is not sufficiently enforced; conscripts, when they begin their military service, are often unable to read and write, and have to learn during their term. Religious instruction is optional, but is generally demanded; there is no feeling against it in Italy as there is in France. The poverty of elementary schools is very great; they are held often in unsanitary buildings, and possess few maps or specimens for object-lessons, and yet they cost the communes $15,000,000, of which the Government grants $325,000. The teachers, who are trained for their work in special colleges, are badly paid. The average salary for a man is from $140 to $265 per annum; a woman receives from $110 to $210 at most.

The secondary schools are divided into classical or technical; the fees are from $20 to $30 a term, from which the very poorest people are exempted. The classical schools are divided into *ginnasii* and *licei*. The age for the former is from ten to fifteen; the *liceo* demands three further years of study. The teaching is all on set lines, leaving no liberty of initiative either to master or to pupil. Latin is more thoroughly taught than Greek, of which it is rare that anything remains after school time. Modern languages are neglected. Italian literature, history, geography, mathematics, the elements of natural science, and philosophy, are the subjects taken up. The course at the technical schools is also of seven years; the subjects are modern languages, arithmetic, bookkeeping, algebra and geometry, drawing, history, and geography. There are, besides, special schools of decorative design and modelling. We are told that the agricultural, mining, and forest schools have failed completely, as also the sulphur-mining school at Palermo.

There are no games or sports in common at any of the public schools; the boys are very insufficiently trained in gymnastics, of which there are classes twice weekly, but from which they are easily excused on very futile pleas. We have known parents to get a medical certificate so that their boys should not run the risk of catching cold after getting heated by the prescribed exercise. Friendships are not made at school; the boys of good family keep strictly aloof from those of inferior social rank. There is no community of interest among them, so that school life loses much of the purpose it has in England and America, where recreation is part of the scholastic plan. Strolling through the streets after school hours and frequenting the cafés, or a formal walk, are often the sole resources of an Italian boy by way of recreation.

There are as many as twenty-one universities in Italy besides the College of Superior Studies in Florence and the Milan Academy. This is in excess of the requirements of the country, but, as most of them existed when there were separate independent states, the fear of offending local susceptibilities prevents any being suppressed. The university course, the same in all, costs in fees paid in separate instalments from $90 to $170. The result of this cheap higher education is not happy: it fills the liberal professions with men who cannot earn their living in them, and who consider themselves too superior to undertake more useful work. They drift into Government employment, where they have little to do, and, unless specially gifted, have to content themselves with a salary of about $240 or $300 a year. During the university course the young men generally live at home. There is no supervision of study, no enforced discipline; they are not even obliged to attend the lectures provided for them. If any professor is unpopular or severe in exacting their attendance at his lectures, the students have it all in their own hands to organize riots, and scarcely a year passes without some demonstration of this nature; and the students of other universities follow suit to show their solidarity. The only punishment for disorderly conduct is the closing of the University for a fortnight or so; this gives the students a holiday, and they have besides fewer lectures to read up for their examinations. The Minister of Public Instruction has the right to supervene and to suspend the ringleaders for a year, but any authoritative measures cause great discomfort to the Minister, who is tormented by petitions from the relatives of the offenders, or the local Deputy threatens to join the Opposition if he does not revoke the punishment; and if the Minister remains unmoved, at the next Cabinet crisis he is generally ousted. It is this interference of the Ministry of Public Instruction which is so disastrous to the efficiency of the professors, often distinguished men of European reputation, but who are utterly powerless to bring about any material improvement in the system of education. The studies are regulated at the Ministry, the scholastic programme is there decided upon, the teachers are under its control, and the examination papers are made up there. In the course of thirty-two years there have been no less than thirty-four different Ministers of Public Instruction, so that not one has ever had time to bring about any important reform, while changes in details of little value are constantly decreed and soon suppressed by the next man in power. It has often been declared that the post of Minister of Public Instruction should be permanent, not depending on party politics, in order to be in any way efficient. According to our author, this Ministry is overwhelmed with the care of trivial details. Even during his holiday in the country, the Minister is besieged with people requiring favors of him, while if passing through any provincial town, he is under the obligation of receiving the visits daily of the prefect, the Mayor, the head of the carabinieri, and the most important citizens, while if in a village, the local band plays every evening under his windows, unless as a change from this infliction he is serenaded by the children of the elementary schools.

Mr. Villari's chapters on Music, Literature, and Art are not in any way adequate. The illustrations, from instantaneous photographs, are very poor, and the style throughout is careless, continually falling

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into slang expressions, which come rather as a shock to the reader when the subject treated of is serious. Notwithstanding these defects, the book will be useful to those who desire to know the life of the Italian people as seen through an Italian medium.

FYFE'S SUBMARINE WARFARE.

Submarine Warfare. By Herbert C. Fyfe. With Introduction by Admiral Sir E. R. Fremantle, R. N., and Sir Edward J. Reed, M. P. London: Grant Richards; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1902.

The problems of aerial and subaqueous navigation have keenly interested men ever since the days of Dædalus and Jonah, who still "hold the record." Although enthusiasts there be who look for achievements greater, both as to time and distance, than those of that spiritless and unhappy prophet, the son of Amittai, Mr. Fyfe, in his interesting book, seems to expect, at least for the present, only such gradual improvements in the mechanism of so-called submarine boats as will render their movements swifter, better controlled, and freer from the chance of internal disaster. That he subconsciously believes they will seriously affect, if not entirely revolutionize naval warfare, is evident on every page. Those who care to learn what has been done in the past to move below the surface of the sea against an enemy and there to blow him into eternity; or who wish to keep in touch with the experiments towards this same beneficent end which are going on the world over, will find in Mr. Fyfe's work pretty much all that is publicly available, and they may be led by the logic of the facts he adduces to share the tempered optimism of his views.

In his Part II., Mr. Fyfe gives an excellent résumé of the history of his subject, beginning with the divers of Tyre in Alexander's siege, who "swam off from the city under water to a great distance, and with long hooks tore to pieces the mole with which the besiegers were endeavoring to block up the harbor." It is a far cry from this episode to the days of Cornelius Drebbel, born in Holland in 1572, for whom the definite claim is first made of successful under-water travelling. The Dictionary of National Biography states that he invented a submarine boat "which was navigable, without the use of artificial light, from Westminster to Greenwich." This story was believed by the famous physicist Boyle, who refers to Drebbel in his 'Spring of the Air' (1662). We hear no more about the subject until the American Revolution, when, proper conditions being realized in offensive coast operations conducted against a determined people of exceptional mechanical ingenuity, submarine warfare according to our modern notions was invented and partially developed by David Bushnell, a native of Saybrook, Connecticut (not Maine, as Mr. Fyfe states), who built in 1775 "the first practical submarine boat, and the first of which any detailed account is extant." In it one Sergeant Ezra Lee, in 1776, made an attempt, which almost succeeded, to blow up the sixty-four-gun ship *Eagle*, while at anchor off Governor's Island. His mode of operation was to dive beneath the water and fix a torpedo to the ship's bottom by means of a screw. The torpedo contained one hundred and fifty pounds of gunpowder, to be exploded, after a certain lapse of time, by clockwork. Bushnell was shortly followed by another American, the celebrated Fulton, who, in 1801, in the harbor of Brest, descended in a plunging boat of his own devising to the depth of twenty-five feet, and there remained for an hour. "Satisfied with the performance of his boat," says Barnes in his 'Submarine Warfare' (New York, 1869), "he next made numerous experiments with his submarine bombs, to which he now gave the name of 'torpedoes,' and baptized the boat *Nautilus*." As the French Government would neither adopt nor further his schemes, he went to London, and in May, 1804, laid them before the English Ministry. Pitt alone approved; the others scouted the idea, and thought, with Lord St. Vincent, that "Pitt was the greatest fool that ever existed, to encourage a mode of war which they who commanded the seas did not want, and which, if successful, would deprive them of it."

The subject slumbered during the long years of peace that followed the Napoleonic wars, and it awoke only during our own Rebellion, when, for the first time in history, a man-of-war was actually destroyed by a plunging boat; the United States steamer *Housatonic* being blown up in 1864 by a "*David*," off Charleston Bar. The general unrest which characterized the closing decades of the last century proved exceptionally fertile in warlike inventions, and the submarine boat gained a development which has made it, as Mr. Fyfe says, "no longer an ingenious toy."

A successful plunging boat must possess ability to navigate on the surface for the approach; ability to descend for the attack to any given depth, at will; ability to maintain that depth within very close limits; ability to steer a straight course when either afloat or submerged; habitability for a reasonable length of time in either condition; ability to discharge a Whitehead torpedo without endangering stability or flotation; absolute certainty of returning to the surface when desired; sufficient speed, the more the better; ample range of action; freedom from breakdowns to machinery; freedom from internal accidents; ability to discover and to aim at the target.

We cannot do better than to refer to Mr. Fyfe's book the reader who desires to know how these requirements have been met in the various types of submarine boats which have come so prominently before the public in recent years. There seems to be little doubt that the *Holland* class, named after its American inventor, commands the most confidence, although even this is still open to great improvement, especially in the two last respects just enumerated. Without entering into detail, it may be briefly stated that the present *Holland* is shaped like a cigar, is about fifty-four feet long, and about ten feet in greatest diameter; is driven by a single screw operated by a gasoline engine at the surface, or by an electric motor and storage battery when submerged. The horizontal rudders which move her up or down are so satisfactory in their operation that the desired plane of submersion is maintained within a few inches. Should the engines stop, a small reserve of buoyancy, which may be increased if necessary, brings the boat to the top of the water. Compressed air carried in flasks keeps the atmosphere respirable.

The only serious accidents yet experienced in the *Holland* class are explosions attributed to the hydrogen gas given off by the storage battery. This source of danger can doubtless be eliminated or controlled, leaving the difficulty of seeing as the common and insuperable obstacle to the assured employment of the submarine of all types. Any swimmer knows how hard it is, when in the water, to see beyond a very short distance. Let him put himself inside a four-inch bronze turret, just awash, with narrow slits for peepholes, and then find his enemy on a dark night if he can. Practically, he will stay on the surface and scout for his quarry till discovered; but even then his horizon is greatly narrowed, for a man standing on a raft cannot see very far, especially in gloom or in thick weather. It is difficult to imagine a means by which this fundamental and physical inconvenience can be satisfactorily overcome. Again, the submarine has at present a speed of only seven or eight knots as against her enemy's possible sixteen to twenty. These two limitations indicate the tactical reply to the submarine (masking lights at night, keeping in motion at fair speed, and throwing out lines of picket boats), while they suggest, at the same time, that the best rôle of the submarine will probably be the defence of harbors, and, particularly, keeping a blockading fleet well off shore, and under the continual strain of ceaseless vigilance. "For the purposes of coast defence, the submarine may be said to have fairly established its value," says our author; "the knowledge that such craft were 'in being' would have a deterrent influence upon an admiral attacking a fort or contemplating a blockade, and in all probability the days of close blockade are over."

Further than this it would not be prudent to go with our author in his forecast. To use the submarine in offensive warfare she must be vastly improved in the way of habitability, for she cannot be carried about by larger vessels, as some overzealous partisans suggest. Time was when battleships so carried small torpedo boats for the mêlée of close action. This practice has disappeared with other plans for supplanting the gun, still the unchallenged arbiter of naval battles. That the submarine has its use no one can deny; doubtless its greatest value will be found in allaying public alarm, and permitting good citizens and timorous non-combatants to sleep in peace, secure in the knowledge that a submarine "defends" the port. We are not likely, in our day, to see the battle-ship relegated to a museum, and naval fights reduced to diving contests. Nor need the man behind the gun fear the loss of his prestige until shorn of it in the crucial experiment of actual war.

The conviction that the submarine, however successful, will, at most, have but a restricted field and a minor part in the great operations of future maritime conflicts, receives support from the Annual of the Office of Naval Intelligence, which records impartially the facts and not the theories of the world's naval progress. The current number devotes some three pages in all to submarine boats, out of sixty-five taken up with notes on ships and torpedo-boats in the 500 which comprise the work. Ordnance and armor, on the other hand, absorb no less than 112. The proportion or disproportion may not be significant, but,

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at least, it excites comment. As to the French submarine craft, by far the most numerous contingent, the Annual calmly remarks: "While the published accounts always, or nearly always, give unstinted praise and pronounce the experiment a success, the fact remains that details are rarely given, and the success obtained is probably not so great as usually described in the press." It is, by the way, impossible to avoid the suspicion that the vogue of the submarine is to some extent due to its promise to set the poorer and weaker Powers on an equality with their richer and stronger rivals.

Mr. Fyfe's style is simple and pleasing, but the frequent repetitions of fact and opinion which mark his pages suggest that the work itself was made by the hasty collating of several distinct essays. The proof-reading is execrable, especially in the matter of dates; there is no index. The typography is excellent, but the paper is of that highly calendered variety dear to the cheap magazine and wearying to the eye. None the less, we must share Sir E. J. Reed's opinion that this "is a most timely and highly instructive work, and one which gives to the non-technical world an extremely good review of all that has been done in the way of submarine war-vessels, while the technical man into whose hands it may come will be compelled, by its great interest and by its clever record of facts, to read every page of it."

Asiatic Russia. By George Frederick Wright. In two volumes. McClure, Phillips & Co. 1902.

The Real Siberia. By John Foster Fraser. D. Appleton & Co. 1902.

Works on Asiatic Russia are multiplying apace; in fact, the world, including the Russians themselves, is just awakening to the full importance of the subject. Then, too, the Trans-Siberian Railway, which is now open to any one, is so new that foreign passengers still feel a little like explorers whose duty it is to relate their discoveries to their fellowmen. The immense resources and possibilities of the huge regions hitherto so little known are attracting wider and wider attention. There is a demand for good books about them, for we have none too many, especially in English. Mr. Wright has put into his two bulky, though really rather short volumes, a mass of valuable facts, most of them not easily accessible to the average reader. He has given us an excellent succinct account of the geography, history, and general conditions of Asiatic Russia at the present time. Although as a geologist he devotes some little space to scientific topics that will not greatly interest most of his readers, history and politics are not neglected. His description of the exploration and conquest of Siberia is particularly good, and his tone throughout is moderate and sensible.

It is only when we come to the political reflections that we feel inclined to criticise. For some reason or other, very few writers about Russia seem to be able to steer a middle course between apology and denunciation. Mr. Wright is an apologist, which is better than the reverse, but this is the weakest side of his book. In his admiration of courage and success he frequently glosses over unscrupulousness; some of his statements are misleading, usually by their omissions, and occasionally he provokes a smile. For instance, in describing the "Occupation of Turkestan," he declares that, after the seizure of Merv, "without further bloodshed Russia at length, in 1883, reached her natural boundary," but he omits to mention that two years later the Russians, after killing or wounding in battle some 500 Afghans, extended the said boundary. Instead, he goes on to assure us that "the alarm of the English at the advance of Russia towards India in this direction has long since subsided, in view of the evident good faith with which the Russians are applying themselves to the development of the country and to the maintenance of peace upon the border."

This conclusion is rather steep. Still more so is the remark that the despotic power of the *mir*, or peasant community, to banish to Siberia its objectionable or burdensome members "is scarcely distinguishable in principle from the increasing exercise of 'local option' which is characteristic of so many American communities." It is also strange to find an American maintaining that "it augurs well for the Siberian part of Russia that it is not open to indiscriminate immigration, but that it has been reserved for the natural increase of the indigenous population and for Russian emigrants. In this way a unity can be preserved." And he supports this proposition by pointing out the decline in the birth-rate in the United States since (or, as he seems to believe, because of) the large immigration of the last half-century. When speaking of the pastoral Khirghiz, whose situation is unquestionably becoming worse as time goes on, Mr. Wright, while admitting that, in the Government of Turgai between 1882 and 1896, "there has been a diminution of 355,000 horses, 60,000 cattle, 60,000 camels, and about 700,000 sheep," cheerfully adds: "But as the horses and camels, above a certain number, are non-productive, their diminution is a sign of prosperity rather than the contrary." How about the cattle and the sheep? Finally, the statement that "in many respects Russia is the most tolerant of all governments," though it is often made by Russians themselves, shows an extraordinary delusion on their part, and is absurd in the mouth of an Anglo-Saxon.

There are a number of other dicta of this sort that we might criticise, but they do not seriously lessen the value of a work which can, after all, be recommended to the public as in the main really sound and full of useful information.

Mr. Fraser's 'The Real Siberia' is less ambitious. Starting out loaded with the usual English prejudice, as he freely admits, and innocent of any knowledge of the country he was to visit, the author journeyed to the Pacific and back. He has now written a book to enlighten those of his countrymen who remain in his previous state of ignorance. His volume has no pretensions to be anything more than a mere sketch of travel and observation, but it reads pleasantly, and its general tone is characterized by cheery common-sense. What Mr. Fraser gets at second hand is less trustworthy. His worst slip is the statement that "in Western Siberia a grant of some thirty-two English square miles is made to every man, and in some cases there is an additional grant of six miles of forests." If the writer had said acres in both cases instead of miles, he would have been not far from the truth.

One Thousand American Fungi: How to Select and Cook the Edible; How to Distinguish and Avoid the Poisonous. By Charles McIlvaine, assisted by Robert K. Macadam. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Company. 1902.

This substantial quarto of 704 pages is frankly written by an amateur for amateurs, and must be judged accordingly. It is not in any way intended to rival such monographs as those by Prof. W. G. Farlow of Harvard or by Prof. Charles H. Peck, the New York State Botanist. Of course, Mr. McIlvaine has borrowed freely from Professor Peck's reports on the Boletus, and other similar treatises, but he has attempted to present the matter in highly popular form.

As a book for amateurs Mr. McIlvaine's at once comes into competition with four others: 'Edible Toadstools and Mushrooms,' by the late W. Hamilton Gibson (Harper & Bros.); 'Among the Mushrooms,' by Ellen M. Dallas and Caroline A. Burgin (Philadelphia: Drexel Biddle); 'The Mushroom Book,' by Nina L. Marshall (Doubleday, Page & Co.); and 'Studies of American Fungi,' by Prof. George Francis Atkinson of Cornell (Ithaca: Andrus & Church). Of these Mr. Gibson's is unquestionably the most beautiful, but it is so scrappy and incomplete that it is of little value to the mushroom hunter. The exquisite illustrations have started more than one person afield, fired with mycologic zeal, but in a few days the enthusiast learns that Mr. Gibson did little more than get up a pretty picture-book. Then, too, the price places it beyond the reach of many. 'Among the Mushrooms' contains some good reproductions of photographs and some fair color prints, but otherwise it is nearly useless. The mushrooms are classified according to color rather than according to structure; an arrangement that can appeal only to the most superficial observer. 'The Mushroom Book,' like all the nature books published by Doubleday, Page & Co., is finely illustrated. The photographs give the most minute detail, and the color prints are extraordinarily vivid and accurate. Miss Marshall usually describes at least one variety under each genus, and of the commoner genera more than one. A considerable number of her descriptions, however, are too vague to serve as guides, and her book as a whole is exasperatingly incomplete. A man may in an afternoon in the woods find three or four of the Lactarius quite as interesting and important as the two which she mentions. Indeed, the Lactarius Deliciosus, the most valuable of the family for the table, she omits entirely; and so on throughout the work. Professor Atkinson's 'Studies,' which costs the same price as 'The Mushroom Book,' is indubitably superior in every respect but one, the number of colored plates. The 'Studies' contains but six, 'The Mushroom Book' twenty-four. The difference is almost made up by Professor Atkinson's many half-tone reproductions of perfect photographs. He describes many more varieties than Miss

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Marshall, and his descriptions are in the main more detailed. Any one who has both books will find himself relying chiefly on Professor Atkinson's and supplementing it by an occasional reference to a colored plate in Miss Marshall's. For example, Professor Atkinson describes thirteen species of the Lactarius as against Miss Marshall's two. Nevertheless, his book is far from complete, as the mushroom collector will discover the first day he uses it. If the author would fill in the gaps, add twenty or thirty colored plates, and issue a second edition at the same price, he would win the gratitude of every amateur and professional mycologist in the country.

The chief merit of Mr. McIlvaine's book, to return to the one before us, is its completeness. He identifies about a thousand species—roughly speaking, three times as many as Atkinson. A comparison of the number of species distinguished under several common genera by the three writers may be of interest.

	Marshall.	Atkinson.	McIlvaine.
Agaricus	9	13	23
Amanita	5	16	29
Boletus	20	17	125
Cortinarius	2	4	23
Hydnum	8	9	20
Lactarius	2	13	34
Lepiota	3	9	25
Mycena	1	10	7
Pleurotus	3	9	16
Polyporus	9	11	22
Russula	3	8	45

The figures in the table hardly do justice to Professor Atkinson, for what descriptions he gives generally excel in clearness and accuracy. One trouble with Mr. McIlvaine is that he identifies almost too many species. He is often inclined to class as separate species what Professor Atkinson would regard as minor variations in the form of one species. The result is that the reader is puzzled to distinguish small differences and is sometimes hindered rather than helped. On the whole, however, in spite of possible confusions and inaccuracies, Mr. McIlvaine's book must enable the student to identify many species that are not even mentioned in the other four books.

The work contains thirty-two colored plates, but, as they are reproductions of water-color sketches, they are less accurate and detailed than the colored plates offered by Miss Marshall and Professor Atkinson. The half-tones from photographs are entirely satisfactory. The size and weight of the book, and the price, must give the average purchaser pause. What the mushroom hunter needs is a book with Miss Marshall's colored plates, Professor Atkinson's half-tones, the completeness that Mr. McIlvaine attempts, and Professor Atkinson's lucidity and exactness. There are rumors of a *magnum opus* by Professor Farlow to fill all these wants, but in the meantime the waiting world ought to buy many copies of something less pretentious.

Outlines of Criminal Law.—A Selection of Cases Illustrative of English Criminal Law. By Courtney Stanhope Kenny. Two volumes. Cambridge (Eng.): University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1902.

The author of these volumes justifies their appearance by the fact that he has lectured on criminal law at Cambridge for a quarter of a century—"a period long enough to afford even the least competent lecturer some opportunity of ascertaining what principles, and what illustrations, are so successful in arresting the attention and impressing the memory of students as to be worth putting before them in the earliest manual which they peruse." A brief examination will convince the reader that no excuse was necessary for these publications. It is difficult to imagine a more perfect expository style than that of the lectures, and the fine distinctions which the nature of the subject requires are made with admirable clearness. When a lecturer brings such qualifications to his task it is not surprising that he should find, as Mr. Kenny has done, that law students regard criminal law as one of the most attractive portions of their work. Presumptively, these lectures are meant for those who take up the law as a profession; but they will be useful to many older men when called on to discharge the duties of a justice of the peace. While our law has diverged from that of England, the principles of the two systems remain substantially the same, and the procedure is in most respects similar. For this, and for other reasons, these lectures will be found invaluable by American readers.

With nearly fifty bodies constantly engaged in law-making, we cannot expect to approach the comparatively symmetrical development of criminal law attained in England. It is true that Parliament has not yet been induced to codify this law, but many useful statutes have been passed, and the judges have exerted a steady pressure in the direction of improvement. In some of our States, procedure compares favorably with that of England, but in most of them it is decidedly inferior. This is partly due to our practice of electing judges, which fills the bench with politicians, and partly to the incessant changes caused by the *cacoethes legiferendi*. We are inclined however, to attribute much importance to the fact that the right of the citizen to prosecute criminally, at least in the case of graver offences, has been practically abolished in this country. This right is vested in the functionary generally known as the District Attorney, and he exercises it, in the larger cities, at his pleasure. The prosecution of criminals having ceased to be a part of the occupation of the general practitioner, their defence has also passed out of his hands. In such a city as New York few lawyers know anything of criminal law, and those who are familiar with it have a *clientèle* largely, if not exclusively, composed of criminals. The results have been prejudicial, not only to procedure, but also to the law itself; and the plight of an innocent person accused of crime and obliged to employ a "Tombs-lawyer" for his defence is certainly deplorable.

This is not the place to enumerate the particulars in which the Criminal Law has been improved, or to consider those in which it is susceptible of improvement, tempting as such a review is made by Mr. Kenny's exposition. We can mention only the prevalent theory concerning exemption from responsibility caused by insanity. "Within a century," Mr. Kenny tells us, "so eminent a statesman as Windham could urge in Parliament the view that even the most insane criminal ought to be hanged for his crime 'for example's sake.'" But this was never the law, nor, on the other hand, has the mere existence of insanity sufficed for exemption. Not very long ago medical experts inclined to take this view; but observation appears to have established the fact that many insane persons are influenced by the fear of punishment. Hence English law now distinguishes two classes of insane persons—those who are not affected by the terrors of the law, and those who, as Lord Bramwell said, "would not have yielded to their insanity if a policeman had been at their elbow." In this country, "irresistible impulse" is recognized as a defence; but the English courts hesitate to admit it. Nor does their law seem to regard insanity as a circumstance that may mitigate punishment, although in practice it is often so treated. Much the same may be said of drunkenness.

The 'Select Cases' constitute an admirable repertory of criminal law. Few of them are taken from our reports, and many of them are of high antiquity. We must complain that they are sometimes enigmatical, in not stating whether the trial resulted in conviction or acquittal. They may be described, as the Scotchman did the definitions in the dictionary, as "Bra' stories, but unco' short"; nevertheless, it is a relief to escape from the frightful verbosity which is the besetting sin of our judges. Taken together, these volumes constitute a *corpus juris* of which the English people may well be proud. Our lawyers, and especially our judges, should welcome them; and they deserve the attention of all who care to understand our institutions.

Madame de Pompadour. By H. Noel Williams. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902.

This volume proves the continuance of interest that pertains to a century in which the direct action of women on the principal affairs or relations of life has become a commonplace for historical remark. Few commentators, however, add the obvious note that during that very time (especially in France) the rights and legal status of the sex obtained a minimum of recognition. It is one of the principal objects of Mr. Williams's voluminous study to show how, by dint of natural ability, sheer feminine persistence, and unscrupulous use of any effective means, a king's favorite—herself a *bourgeoise*—succeeded in imposing her will on the most uncompromisingly aristocratic society of her time, and, through want of genuine administrative capacity, hastened the break-up of the very conditions that she sought to control single-handed.

The story has become familiar from often telling; it is excellently summed up in Mr. Perkins's 'France under Louis XV.,' in the following decisive words: "A history of her rule would be properly entitled France under Mme. de Pompadour. . . . She had the ambition of a Catharine II. without her intellect." To the severity of this historical judgment, from which there is now no admissible appeal, Mr. Williams would attach a set of considerations, not by way of posthumous exculpation, but in the interest of serene impartiality. His own discussion of the political rôle of Jeanne Poisson is as uncompromising an arraignment as an enemy could wish; though, it must be said, there is yet ample room in his treatise for adequate attention to the fever of megalomania which misled an unscrupulous woman into the belief that her judgment of situations and suitable men was sound. Both her dismissals and her appointments, as Mr. Williams admits, were

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urged by private considerations or enmities, and all in view of advancing her favorites. Her proscription or exclusion lists contain the names of the only men able to cope with the problems of government, foreign policy, or war. Her pet general was routed at Rossbach. Her ignorance of colonial affairs cost France, on our side of the Atlantic, the influence which neither language, nor race feeling, nor religious earnestness has yet succeeded in reinstating. This collective (but now somewhat banal) charge might find some palliation if Mr. Williams, or any one else, could show under this mass of bungling the motive of affection for either her royal lover or the common country of both. Through a discreet footnote (p. 366) we discover that even in these natural impulses her present biographer believes her to have been wanting. We find, as an offset to this, several chapters devoted to the generally neglected credit side of La Pompadour's account with posterity. It amounts, in brief, to assistance given to a few men of letters and artists, to encouragement of the porcelain-workers at Sèvres, to the foundation of the École Militaire, and to unfailing generosity towards those she liked because they worked her will.

In the above summary, we have not pointed out the range of Mr. Williams's studies, which, with the help of a page of bibliography, he might have spared his readers the labor of verifying in his numerous footnotes. It may be observed, however, that the weight of his attention seems to have been directed chiefly to the writers of detail in history, such as the Goncourts, whose well-known interest in the minutiæ of documentation so often obscures the breadth of view essential to great historical writing. As a countervailing result, many pages in this work present for the first time to English readers, in extremely attractive form, several episodes of picturesque, if secondary, character. The accounts of Madame de Pompadour's theatrical undertakings and of Latude's escapades and impostures are given in spirited fashion. The French quotations show careful revision; not so the words and phrases casually introduced. When Madame de Pompadour tacitly consented to, or even assisted, the infamies of the Parc aux Cerfs, she did not play the part of an "entremetteur" (p. 208); and the *haute monde* (p. 286) of Paris never existed outside of an English book. The volume, however, is eminently readable, and will doubtless further recommend itself to libraries, public or private, by the beauty of its form and its excellently selected illustrations.

European and Japanese Gardens. Philadelphia: Henry T. Coates & Co. 1902. Pp. 162, ill., $1.50.

We have here a series of papers recently read before the American Institute of Architects. Of late years the literature of garden design has grown apace, but its growth has included no book of moderate cost which offers so many views of important examples as does the one whose title we record above. The pictures are well chosen and include plans of many celebrated gardens. The text is by sundry writers. Prof. A. D. F. Hamlin of Columbia College gives an account of the origin and development of the Italian garden. The spirit that animated the men of the Renaissance in the making of their gardens, the genius of their style, the response of their designs to their manners, customs, traditions, climate, and to the spirit of their times—is brought out with the utmost clearness. So complete a picture of the garden in Italy is presented that we come away from it fully prepared to follow its influence beyond the Alps. In his paper on French gardening, Mr. John Galen Howard tells how the art of Italy, in its new home, became a thing far different from its prototype. So commanding a genius was its acknowledged master, André Le Nôtre, that in any study of French gardening his work must fill a large space, and to this rule Mr. Howard's essay offers no exception. For him Le Nôtre is the Shakspere of gardening, whose work deserves and receives his most sympathetic study and enthusiastic praise. English Gardens, as seen by Mr. R. Clipston Sturgis, present an entire contrast to such vast conceptions as Versailles and Fontainbleau. For him the chief interest of gardening in England centres about the simpler work, the smaller and less pretentious gardens seeming in every way the more perfect. He attempts no account of English gardening as a whole, either historical or descriptive, but dwells upon some of its distinguishing characteristics, such as the desire for privacy and separation, the division of the grounds according to their use, the high standard so general in maintenance. His love of the simple and homely in English gardens and of the reasonableness of their arrangement comes from a knowledge of the subject to be gained only from the gardens themselves. The brief notes that accompany the excellent views of Japanese gardens are by K. Honda, who describes the Hill and Flat gardens in the finished, rough and intermediate styles, and gives an account of the accessories proper to the several sorts of Japanese garden.

The papers, in spite of their diverse origin, hang together well. The book is worth having, not only on account of its beautiful illustrations, but because it treats its subjects sanely and intelligently.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ade, George. The Girl Proposition. R. H. Russell.
Alcott, Louisa M. Little Women. New ed., illustrated by Alice Barber Stephens. Boston: Little Brown & Co. $2.00.
Andrews, Mary R. S. Vive l'Empereur. Scribners. $1.00.
Banks, Nancy H. Oldfield: A. Kentucky Tale of the Last Century. Macmillan. $1.50.
Barrie, J. M. The Little White Bird; or, Adventures in Kensington Gardens. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
Baskett, J. N. Sweetbriar and Thistledown. Boston: W. A. Wilde Co.
Baum, L. Frank. The Life and Adventures of Santa Claus. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.
Beale, Prof. J. H., jr. Selection of Cases on the Conflict of Laws. Vol. I. Jurisdiction: Remedies. II. The Creation of Rights. III. The Recognition and Enforcement of Rights. Boston Book Co.
Beall, St. Clair. The Winning of Sarenne. Federal Book Co.
Bengough, E. A. The Talk of the Town. D. Appleton & Co. $1.25.
Berners, Lord. The Chronicle of Froissart. Vol. V. (Tudor Translations, edited by W. E. Henley.) London: David Nutt.
Black, Clementine. Frederick Walker. London: Duckworth & Co.; New York: Dutton. 75c.
Blake, William. Illustrations of the Book of Job, in 21 Plates. (Facsimile reissue.) London: Dent; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $4.00.
Black, A. Richard Gordon. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.50.
Blanchan, Neltje. How to Attract the Birds. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.35.
Blanchard, Amy E. A Loyal Lass. Boston: W. A. Wilde Co. $1.50.
Book-Prices Current. Vol. XVI. London: Elliot Stock.
Bradford, Rev. A. H. The Ascent of the Soul. The Outlook Co. $1.25.
Brooks, F. E. Pickett's Charge, and Other Poems. Boston: Forbes & Co. $1.25.
Brown, Abbie Farwell. A Pocketful of Posies. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Brown, H. The Venetian Republic. (Temple Primers.) London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. 40c.
Brown, Prof. W. A. The Essence of Christianity. Scribners.
Browne, Prof. E. G. A Literary History of Persia, from the Earliest Times until Firdawsi. Scribners. $4.00.
Browning, Elizabeth B. Aurora Leigh, and Other Poems. (Oxford Miniature Poets.) Henry Frowde. 3s. 6d.
Bruno, G. Le Tour de la France. American Book Co. 60 cents.
Burgess, Gelett. The Romance of the Commonplace. San Francisco: Elder & Shepard.
Carleton, Will. Songs of Two Centuries. Harper & Bros.
Carling, J. R. The Shadow of the Czar. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.50.
Carryl, G. W. Grimm Tales Made Gay. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Channing, William E. Thoreau, the Poet Naturalist. New ed. enlarged. Edited by F. B. Sanborn. Boston: Charles E. Goodspeed. $2.
Channing, Blanche M. The Balaster-Boys. Boston: W. A. Wilde Co.
Churchill, Lida A. A Grain of Madness: A Romance. The Abbey Press. $1.25.
Churchill, Llewella P. Samoa Uma: Where Life is Different. New York: Forest and Stream Publishing Co. $1.50.
Clark, William. Pascal. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25.
Cleveland, F. A. Funds and their Uses. D. Appleton & Co.
Colquhoun, Ethel. Two on their Travels. A. S. Barnes & Co. $2.50.
Connor, Ralph. Glengarry School Days. Fleming H. Revell Co.
Cook, Albert S., and Tinker, Chauncey B. Translations from Old English Poetry. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Corelli, Marie. Thelma. R. F. Fenno & Co.
Crafts, Rev. W. F. The March of Christ Down the Centuries. Washington: International Reform Bureau; York, Pa.: P. Anstadt & Sons. 25c.
Crawford, Marion. Cecilia: A Story of Modern Rome. Macmillan. $1.50.
Cruttwell, Maud. Luca and Andrea Della Robbia and their Successors. London: Dent; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $8.00.
DeVinne, Theodore L. A Treatise on Title-Pages. (The Practice of Typography.) The Century Co. $2.00.
Dialogus de Scaccario. By Richard, Son of Nigel. Edited by Arthur Hughes, C. G. Crump and C. Johnson. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Froude.
Ditchfield, P. H. The Cathedrals of Great Britain, their History and Architecture. London: Dent; Philadelphia: Lippincott. $2.
Dobson, Austin. Samuel Richardson. (English Men of Letters.) Macmillan.
Doty, D. Z. Pictures of Paint-Box Town. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.00.
Drummond, J. Life and Letters of James Martineau. 2 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co. $8.00.
Dye, Eva Emery. The Conquest. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Eddy, Arthur Jerome. Delight the Soul of Art. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Ellwanger, W. D. A. Summer Snowflake, and Drift of Other Verse and Song. Doubleday, Page & Co. $2.00.
Ely, Richard T. The Coming City. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 60 cents.
Everett, E. F. Descendants of Richard Everett of Dedham, Mass. Boston: Privately printed.
Every Day in the Year. Edited by James L. Ford and Mary K. Ford. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Fenn, G. M. Star Lynn: A Boy's Adventures in China. London: Chambers; New York: Dutton. $1.50.
Fleming, T. Around the Capital with Uncle Hank. New York: Nutshell Publishing Co.
Foncin, P. Le Pays de France. American Book Co. 60c.
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